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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 20, 1900.

The Week.

There is no end of noble sentiments in the instructions of the President to the Philippines Commission last April which Mr. McKinley, still on the defensive, deems this the proper time in the campaign to make public. The casual reader who should glance hastily through the columns which it occupies, might be inclined to think that the policy laid down seemed very liberal to the natives. The substitution of civil for military government is what everybody desires, and here apparently is the promise of it, but a careful examination shows that it is only in appearance that any radical change is made. The supreme control is really retained in the military government. Take, for example, those "inviolable rules" which the President says "must be imposed upon every division and branch of the government," and which are copied from the Bill of Rights of the Federal Constitution—as that no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, and that there shall be a speedy and public trial of offenders. It was only a few days ago that the dispatches from Manila reported the arrest, imprisonment, and release of a leading Filipino without the observance of any one of these inviolable rules. The truth is, that the government of the Philippines under the Taft Commission is practically as arbitrary as it was before the members of that Commission left the United States.

On minor matters, we observe more adroitness than principle in Mr. Bryan's letter of acceptance. He outbids McKinley in the matter of pensions, saying that

> "The pension laws should be construed according to the generous spirit which prompted their passage. The platform very properly reiterates the position taken in 1896, that the fact of enlistment shall be deemed conclusive evidence that the soldier was sound when the Government accepted him. A certificate given now to the health of a person forty years ago, even if easily obtainable, should not have as much weight as the certificate of the medical officer who examined the volunteer with a view of ascertaining his fitness for army service."

One of the things to be put to the credit of McKinley is that he kept in office a Commissioner of Pensions who construed the laws according to the facts before him, and not according to the "generous spirit which prompted their passage," if anybody knows what that was. On the subject of the Nicaraguan Canal, Mr. Bryan goes much beyond the present Administration in the way of disregarding the rights of other Powers interested in the navigation of an Isthmian waterway, and he especially condemns the Hay-Pauncefote treaty because it seeks to conform to existing international obligations. This is not the language of statesmanship, but rather that of a candidate who is not very particular what he says if it will bring him the support of unthinking voters.

Gov. Roosevelt's letter of acceptance comes out strong on the savagery and general "cussedness" of the Filipinos. It is really a painful thing to see an educated man, of gallant and generous impulses, thus take up a railing accusation against people concerning whom he has no first-hand information. He freely compares them to Apaches and the Boxers. He indulges, in fact, in just such sweeping revilings of an enemy as would fall naturally from the lips of an Apache or Boxer. But they are out of place in the mouth of a brave soldier. Gov. Roosevelt has been studying seventeenth-century literature. He ought to remember Selden's rebuke of braggart soldiers who abuse an enemy. The worst of it is that the Governor sets up his own unsupported authority against the men who do know the Filipinos. He is wiser than Dewey and the other naval officers; than Foreman and Worcester and Schurman.

The New York State campaign has opened in the lifeless way which was to have been expected after such a convention as the Democrats held last week. The minority party might have made it one of the most interesting and exciting canvasses for the Governorship which New York has seen in many years, if it had nominated the candidate whom the majority frankly admitted that they dreaded. But when Croker "turned down" Coler and imposed a Tammany ticket upon the Convention, the heart was taken out of the Democratic campaign. Mr. Stanchfield, Croker's choice for the Governorship, betrayed his own sense of the weakness of his candidacy when he devoted his opening speech to the Trusts, and neglected State issues entirely. Meanwhile there is a notable lack of enthusiasm on the other side. Mr. Odell is very popular with the professional politicians of his party, but he is not a man to stir the masses if he were to take the stump, and he will not. The Republicans have the issue made for them by the attempt of Croker to control the government of the State as well as that of the municipality, and it is hard to suppose that the Tammany boss has not given them an easy victory after a dull campaign.

Mr. Stanchfield's address at Lyons on Friday (his first appearance since his nomination) will not commend him to voters who do their own thinking. It was wholly devoted to Trusts, department stores, and other combinations of capital. The usual picture of the evils that beset these combinations was presented to the audience, but no remedy was proposed, except for those which are protected by the tariff. Certainly, department stores are not of this class, nor is the Bicycle Trust or the Tanning Trust, which were particularly mentioned. He was easily answered by Mr. Woodruff, who followed him, and who denounced Trusts as volubly as Mr. Stanchfield himself, and who brought forward the Tammany Ice Trust as a familiar *tu quoque*. There may be a certain amount of prejudice in the minds of the agricultural class whom Mr. Stanchfield was addressing, available for campaign purposes; but unless it can be shown that the Democratic party has a remedy for Trusts and department stores which can be put in force by legislation, no man of sense will cast his vote for a Democrat rather than for a Republican on account of them. All talk about the virtues of competition is idle unless you show how to bring it about. The only remedy for Trusts that Mr. Bryan has committed himself to is a law providing that no corporation doing business in any State shall do business in any other State unless it receive a license from the Federal Government, and that this Federal license shall be issued only on condition that the corporation is not a monopoly. This may be considered the Democratic plan of dealing with Trusts, but even this would not reach the department stores. Mr. Stanchfield's speech at the Wayne County Fair was mainly claptrap and not of a very good kind. It is on a par, however, with the "full dinner-pail" that figures so largely in the Republican campaign.

It is an interesting and significant fact that the Republican Congressman in Maine who made the best showing in the race for reëlection, was the one who opposed Imperialism so stoutly in the House of Representatives during the last session. Mr. Littlefield, the new member from the Lewiston district, who has leaped into national prominence by his bold displays of independence at Washington, received a merited reward from his constituents in running ahead of his party's ticket. Moreover, he was easily the most effective orator on the Republican side during the campaign, while the party also profited much from the speeches of Representative McCall of Massachusetts, who led the movement against the Porto Rican tariff, and Senator Hale of Maine, who has opposed the whole

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Expansion movement ever since he voted against the treaty of peace and was defeated by Bryan's successful efforts to secure its ratification. The fact that Hale, McCall, and Littlefield were still supporting the Republican party, helped it more than all that was said by the whole company of Expansion orators who went up and down the State.

The cry for the initiative and referendum has been raised again this year, and there seem still to be a good many people who believe that a large part of our ills could be cured by their introduction. The advocates of the change, however, always fail to explain why they should expect voters to take an earnest interest in the referendum as a regular thing when they pay very little attention to the institution as a special thing. At the recent election in Maine, there was submitted an amendment to the Constitution establishing the office of State Auditor. There had been considerable discussion of the question, and a good deal of opposition in the farming towns, because it was feared that another expensive department would be saddled upon the State, to do the work which the Governor's council is employed to do in auditing State bills. The proposition was defeated, but the significant thing is that very little attention was paid to the matter. Penobscot County is probably a fair illustration; out of 15,000 men who voted for Governor, only 3,536 had interest enough in the auditing question to mark their ballots either way. If the average man will not improve the opportunity of the referendum when it comes rarely, it is difficult to see why he should be expected to bother himself about the matter when a host of questions are submitted to him.

Delaware, which went for McKinley in 1896, has been generally thought likely to go for Bryan this year. The Republican party has been split into two factions—the Unionists, controlled by Addicks, and the Regulars, who have been fighting the gas speculator for years. Each faction has nominated a State ticket of its own, and the leaders of the Regulars have been inclined to make no concessions, but their State Committee met on Friday and agreed upon a compromise ticket which seems likely to be accepted by the Unionists. In 1896 McKinley carried Delaware by nearly 4,000 plurality, and when the two Republican factions united on a candidate for Congress in 1898, they elected him by about 2,500 plurality. Two Senatorships are to be disposed of by the Legislature which will be elected this fall, and Addicks is bent upon getting one of them. If he can come to terms with the Regulars, and all hands will then support the State and national tickets, McKinley should stand the better chance of carrying the State. Addicks has a double motive for putting out his money this year, since he not only has the chance of buying a Senatorship, but also needs to carry the State for the Republicans on the Presidential issue to justify the action of the National Convention in "recognizing" him at Philadelphia.

Gov. Roosevelt on Thursday made public his decision dismissing the charges brought against District Attorney Gardiner, and thus retaining Mr. Gardiner in office. The accusations made numbered no fewer than eighty, and the specifications rose to about 2,000. It was inevitable that a great amount of time should be consumed in the hearing, if it had been pressed with all diligence and no unexpected causes of delay had arisen. As it was, one thing after another occurred to drag the case along, with the result of cooling public interest in the matter. The selection of a Commissioner to hear the charges, too, was not happy. Mr. Wilcox not only refrained from expressing any opinion as to whether the evidence justified removal, but virtually acquitted the District Attorney on every count, so far as any serious misconduct was concerned, in many cases dividing the responsibility between him and the judges. Gov. Roosevelt would have made a grave error if he had not dismissed the charges upon the Commissioner's findings. Yet the attempt to secure Mr. Gardiner's removal is entirely justified by the evidence of his misconduct which has been brought out. On the other hand, Gov. Roosevelt must have been glad to avoid displacing a political opponent, since his motives might easily be misrepresented. The incident shows the inherent weakness of the law invoked against Gardiner.

President Mitchell and Organizer James of the United Mine Workers are active in their efforts to force out the men who are operating the Jeddo collieries. These men have an agreement of long standing with their employers, according to which all differences are submitted to arbitration. The men have made certain demands, and have given their employers ten days for consideration. At the end of this period, according to the standing agreement, any matters which have not been satisfactorily settled are to be submitted to a board of arbitration, made up of two arbitrators, one chosen by the men, one by the employers, and a third chosen by these two in case they themselves fail to agree. The officers of the United Mine Workers fear that these men, by continuing to operate their collieries, may break the force of the strike, and the Association is eager to get them out. In doing this the United Mine Workers are giving another instance of that irresponsibility and disregard of contract agreements with employers which has brought trade-unionism and labor organizations into general disfavor all over the country. The Jeddo men are working under an agreement to settle all differences through arbitration, and this is exactly the sort of agreement which the Mine Workers' Association is urging upon all the operators. It is the cardinal principle upon which the miners have insisted in organizing the present strike. But if an agreement of this sort with employers is to be followed only when it pleases the miners to follow it, and disregarded when they choose to disregard it, operators generally are not likely to accept the principle of arbitration on those terms.

In view of the coal strike here, it is interesting to note the condition of the coal-mining industry in England during the last year and a half. In sharp contrast to other industries, the coal trade during this period has been in a very flourishing condition, and the colliery companies have been taking profits and declaring dividends freely. One company, with a capital of a million pounds, wisely distributed only 20 per cent. on the ordinary share capital, placing £100,000 to reserve fund and devoting about £20,000 to other purposes, while keeping in hand undivided profits amounting to £25,246. Another company reports that its profits for the year ending March 31 amounted to £111,498, by far the largest ever earned by the company in any one year, the next largest being £74,765 in the year ended March 31, 1894. Other coal companies report equally great profits. These ample dividends have in some instances occasioned a rise of 150 per cent. or more in the capital value of collieries. There is every evidence in the present situation that this long-continued heavy profit-taking on the part of the mine-owners has become an embarrassing tax upon British industry. The operators themselves realize that they are enjoying abnormal prosperity, but they are naturally indisposed to forego profits by lowering the price of coal gratuitously.

In putting up the price of coal as high as the market allows, the mine-owners have acted in accordance with a well-recognized business principle. It does not appear at all that they have manipulated prices, or attempted to "bull the market." No charges of this sort are brought against them. They have not even limited their output in order to sustain prices. On the contrary, it appears that the collieries have been working to their fullest capacity, and not the least perplexing feature of the situation is found in the fact that at the present high prices—prices considered to be ruinously high for British industry—the coal-

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mine operators have been literally swamped with orders which they have been unable to fill. Manufacturers have found themselves caught as in a vise between the rising prices of coal at home and the downward pressure of foreign competition in the markets where they must dispose of their commodities. They have felt generally a narrowing of the margin of profits in consequence of this double movement, and the iron and steel men particularly have been experiencing pretty keenly of late the pressure of American competition. In American markets the price of pig-iron and of steel billets has been and is still steadily declining. At the same time stocks on hand in American warehouses have been increasing, and American producers have been watching European markets eagerly, ready to take advantage of any price movements which should enable them to dispose of their superabundant supplies abroad.

The Supreme Court of Massachusetts has handed down an interesting decision in a case arising out of the struggle for supremacy of two labor unions of the same craft. One union undertook to boycott the other by serving notice upon the "bosses," through its official agents, that members of the rival organization were non-union men. This was understood to be a covert threat that the union serving the notice would order a strike against bosses who should continue to employ members of the other union. The Court enjoins such action, which it characterizes as "intolerable and inconsistent with the spirit of our laws," "malicious," "unlawful," and a "conspiracy." But there is a radical difference of opinion among the judges. Chief Justice Holmes stoutly dissents from his brethren on the bench, and declares that, in his opinion, laborers may lawfully employ such means to secure the unity of organization which is necessary to make the contest of labor effectual. He believes it lawful for a body of workmen "to try by combination to get more than they are now getting, although they do it at the expense of their fellows, and to that end to strengthen their union by the boycott and the strike."

Galveston was a city of some 40,000 inhabitants built on an island something like the sand spits that skirt the Great South Bay of Long Island. The land on which it is situated is from five to ten feet above tide level. It is exposed to the full force of the winds and waters of the Gulf of Mexico. Being near the mainland, it is liable to be submerged whenever a wind of great strength and duration banks up the waters against the coast. The city had been assailed by such dangers before, and it was supposed that the worst that could happen by reason of its exposed situation had already happened. This, it seems, was an erroneous conclusion. The storm of September 8 proved to be a West India hurricane of the most appalling description. The force of the wind appears to have been greater than that which devastated Porto Rico last year. It swept the waters of the Gulf westward and piled them up against the coast. It submerged the foundations of the city to the depth of ten feet in many places. It filled all the wells and cisterns with salt water, and saturated the ground itself with salt. The wind blew down houses and filled the air with their débris, killing and wounding men, women, and children who had escaped drowning. It is impossible to picture the calamity in its awful dimensions. It is needless to say that a great part of the means and implements by which the inhabitants gained their bread have been swept away. The warehouses, the shipping, the churches, schools, and hospitals, the goods, the animals, the railroads (in part), the clothing and utensils are gone, and must be replaced. What had been accumulated by the toil and foresight of half a century for man's comfort and necessities has been engulfed by the waters or shattered by the winds.

The returns from the Cuban elections thus far received show that eleven Nationalists, eleven Republicans, and only one representative of the Democratic Union, the party of annexation, have obtained seats in the coming Constitutional Convention. The list of names includes those of some very able men, among others that of Diego Tamayo, one of Gen. Wood's cabinet, and makes it certain that the protestants against the McKinley plan of having the Convention settle the island's relations to the United States will be well represented, if not in control of the new body. The presence of Gen. Ruis Rivera and of the fire-eating Gen. José Aleman will insure some plain speaking, and as a whole the selections will strengthen the widespread expectation of the Americans in Havana that the Convention will fail to do McKinley's will. That the protests against the unheard-of requirement that a Constitutional Convention shall settle the most important foreign relations of the Government which it is called upon to create, are steadily increasing, is made plain by every mail from Cuba. These protests, as well as the orderly elections, are striking testimony to the ability of the Cubans to govern themselves. The friends of free and independent Cuba might well begin to despair if its people calmly submitted to the "recommendations" of the Military Governor, even though these recommendations are made by a major-general commanding the only troops in the island, and therefore smack of despotism.

Negotiations, now formally concluded, for the placing of a $20,000,000 loan of the German Government in New York, again direct attention to the extraordinary change in this country's position in the world's finance. The floating of these obligations, which appear to be similar in character and maturity to the recent Exchequer bond issue of Great Britain, follows similar accommodation extended to or applied for by Russia, Sweden, and England, and creates a wholly new factor in our investment markets. It must be kept carefully in mind, however, that as yet nothing in the nature of a general movement of small investors to put their money into European Government bonds has developed. Securities of the kind, already floated in our money markets, are not bought and sold on the Stock Exchange. There is, as yet, in Wall Street's phraseology, no "open market" for them. Up to the present time, such European Government bonds as have been placed in the New York market have either been taken by banking-houses, to be disposed of later in the most profitable quarter, or have found their way into the investment fund of the large insurance companies. Even the savings banks, which are among the largest buyers of United States national and municipal bonds, are unable under the law to include foreign securities in their assets. Large, therefore, as is the sum of capital already invested or pledged to these European loans—the total to date, including this German issue, not falling much below $70,000,000—it cannot be said that it represents as yet a permanent change in the general investment movement. But the entering of a new field by the large investing corporations is usually an initial step towards distributing similar securities among private hands. It is, therefore, not at all unlikely that before many months the obligations of European states will be bought and sold on American stock exchanges, held in the strong-boxes of small American investors, and quoted daily in the stock lists of the newspapers.

President Loubet of France, as arbitrator of the boundary dispute between the republics of Colombia, Costa Rica, and Nicaragua, has rendered a decision which has an interest for this country. In lieu of Colombia's extreme claim to the entire eastern coast line of the two northern republics, she gains by the arbitration a scant hundred miles on the east coast and nothing on the west. This rearrangement straightens the Colombia-Costa Rica line, which now runs nearly north and south along the Cordillera as a natural boundary. The decision assures to Nicaragua Greytown, the proposed eastern terminus of the Nicaragua interoceanic canal. If it had been turned over to Colombia, which is interested already in the Panama concession, the Nicaragua scheme might have been blocked.

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THE PRESIDENT'S PHILIPPINE NOVELTIES.

Mr. McKinley's letter of acceptance brings things new and old out of his treasure, like the householder of Scripture. Some of his new controversial weapons he uses, however, with surprising carelessness. In slashing at his opponents he makes ribbons of his own previous arguments. For example, he now prints a hitherto suppressed dispatch of Dewey's, dated July 25, 1898, and saying, "Merritt's most difficult problem will be how to deal with the insurgents under Aguinaldo, who have become aggressive and even threatening toward our army." "See there," cries the grieved and indignant President, "the insurgents wanted to fight us even before the peace protocol was signed!"

If one could cross-examine this immune witness, many pertinent questions would be asked. Why publish this one of Dewey's dispatches, and keep the rest under lock and key? Why, if Mr. McKinley was thus warned of trouble, did he not take measures to prevent it? Why did he go out West, lay his hand on his heart, and declare that he "never dreamed" the insurgents would attack us? The truth is, that the President, in his eagerness to make a point against the Filipinos, has forgotten the rôle he had before tried to play. This was that of a big-hearted, unsuspecting father of his people, bent only on blessing the islanders. The idea never entered his head that anybody could attack so good a man as he. So he was correspondingly thunder-struck when the ungrateful dastards assaulted their benefactor. But now he drops this simple-minded, grandfatherly mask, and tells us he was from the first warned of Filipino machinations. "I knew from the beginning that they were treacherous," he protests, not seeing that, in the act, he makes himself out a negligent and napping commander-in-chief.

But the whole thing is a pure Presidential afterthought. Mark how plain a tale shall put down this belated invention. Gen. Merritt's problem was to deal with the insurgents, was it? They were spoiling for a fight even in July, were they? Well, what did Merritt himself say to the Paris Commissioners in October? He was specifically asked if the Filipinos were disposed to make trouble, and roundly replied, "I think there is no danger of conflict." And Senator Frye has publicly declared on this very subject, "Nobody dreamed of any trouble when we were in Paris. Gen. Whittier and Gen. Merritt were before our committee, and testified that the *most cordial feeling* existed between the Tagalos and the United States troops." This leaves the author of the letter of acceptance looking very like a detected manipulator of the evidence.

Mr. McKinley, however, has another argument in reserve just as good. What put an end to the "cordial feeling"? Certainly it was not the peace treaty, the President asserts. Those who maintain that it was have "forgotten," he declares triumphantly, that "before the treaty was ratified . . . the insurgents attacked the American army." Yes, but possibly other things have also been forgotten The President may have forgotten that he, before the treaty was ratified (six weeks before), issued a proclamation to the Filipinos asserting that the cession of the islands was complete, and that our military government would be extended to "the whole" of Philippine territory. He may have forgotten that this proclamation was a gross violation of the Constitution, void both in morals and in law. He may have forgotten that, irrespective of the legal aspect of the proclamation, it was drawn in such an excess of wantonly tyrannical language that Gen. Otis was alarmed, and tried to suppress it, fearing that its publication would drive the Filipinos to instant insurrection. It was published by accident, and the insurrection followed. All these facts Mr. McKinley may have forgotten, but the future historian will not forget them; neither will he forget to characterize the conduct of a ruler who tried to shuffle away from the consequences of his own inconsiderate action.

The President's remaining Philippine novelties may be quickly dismissed. After deprecating the "exaggerated phrase-making" of those opposed to him, he tries his own hand at phrase-making, with the following result: "The American people will not make the murderers of our soldiers the agents of the Republic." Perhaps not, but the American President is, on his own showing, doing just that. Does he not, in another part of his letter, record with satisfaction the number of insurgent officers who have surrendered and taken the oath of allegiance? Have not many of these "murderers" taken office and so become "agents of the Republic"? And would not McKinley jump at the chance to bribe the lot of them with appointments? Phrase-making, indeed! More of it, and equally hollow, we see in Mr. McKinley's cool assumption that he is consulting the wishes of the "majority" of the Filipinos. What proof does he give of this—what facts—what figures? Not a shred. The accessible evidence is certainly the other way. But what does the President really mean? If a plébiscite showed that a majority of the inhabitants wished American rule withdrawn, would he withdraw it? Of course not. He has asserted that the islands are "ours," willy-nilly, and the desires of the natives go for nothing. Thus we see that all his talk about majority and minority, whether well based statistically or not, is pure claptrap, phrase-making of the most transparent kind.

One brief remark is necessary concerning the President's knowledge of the international laws of war. He gives fresh and official currency to the parrot cry that Dewey's squadron, after destroying the Spanish fleet, could not have been ordered away. "Whither would they ["our adversaries"] have directed it to sail? What port in the Orient was open to it?" The answer is, it should have been directed to sail for San Francisco, and any port would have been open to it for coaling purposes. Senator Sewell, who begged the President to order Dewey home, could have enlightened Mr. McKinley's ignorance on this point. Remember, Dewey reported his squadron uninjured; he probably had or could have helped himself in Manila to enough coal to steam at least to Honolulu; if not, he could have supplied himself at Hong Kong, at Port Arthur, at Nagasaki. The rule is, that belligerent cruisers may take on in neutral ports "so much coal as may be sufficient to carry them to the nearest port of their country, or to some nearer destination." Could not Dewey have done in a port of the Orient what Cervera did at Curaçao? The President's pretence that he could not is only a part of that beating of the air with which he protests against the political opposition of those who, as he tearfully complains, "rushed" him on to the war with Spain.

AN EXPERT ON THE PHILIPPINES.

Mr. John Foreman is conceded to be the prime authority on the Philippine Islands. A resident in the archipelago for eleven years; continuously acquainted with the natives for twenty; a frequent visitor to various islands of the group; possessed of a more intimate knowledge of Filipino character and a larger circle of friends and correspondents among the inhabitants than any foreigner living; the historian *par excellence* of land and people, he is a qualified expert to whom we are bound to listen. Certainly there is no need to labor this point with Republicans. He is their own witness, and they dare not try to discredit him. Professor Worcester, of both Philippine Commissions, constantly bows in his own book to the authority of Foreman. He was especially summoned to Paris by our Peace Commissioners as the very man to guide their uncertain steps aright. *Experto crede.*'

What has this candid friend and recognized authority to say of the American experiment in the Philippines, so far as it has gone? An article in the September number of the *National Review* contains his views. It ought to be reprinted as a campaign document, for the sake of giving the American people some real and really unprejudiced information. Epitomizing what Mr. Foreman says, we find him of the belief that America, through gross mismanagement, has got into a frightful "dilemma" in the

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Philippines, and is in danger of making herself "the laughing stock of Europe." Owing to the ignorance and blundering of our authorities, the overbearing conduct of our troops, and the failure to live up to the first principles of colonization, we have made a sad mess of it in the Philippines. This, be it observed, is quite irrespective of the policy of our taking the islands in the first place. Mr. Foreman, in fact, rather favored our taking them, but he never dreamed that we should display such ineptitude in trying to govern them. The present situation and outlook he thus defines:

"The Americans barely occupy one-five-hundredth part of the total area of the archipelago, in places inaccessible by water. . . . They occupy, in fact, just as much as they can defend by force of arms. . . . Under the circumstances, the probability of the Americans ever gaining the sympathy and acquiescence of the natives is very remote. Unless the Americans are prepared to maintain a large permanent army in the islands, there seems to be no prospect of their ever being able to administer the interior of the archipelago."

On this precise point we pause to cite another bit of unimpeachable testimony. It is from the *Army and Navy Journal*, which says:

"A correspondent writes us from the Philippines that he doesn't see how the force can be reduced in the Philippines this year, at least, and he is an officer of much experience in the archipelago. Every one, he says, is homesick. There is fighting in nearly every island, and officers and men are being picked off every day. It is going to take a long time, he thinks, to settle the question."

Yet Judge Taft is quoted by Mr. Frederick Palmer, in *Collier's Weekly*, as saying in so many words: "It is certain that we cannot long maintain 65,000 American troops in these islands. *The people of the United States will not stand the expense.*"

There, then, is the dilemma, which has resulted, Mr. Foreman says, from the ignorance of "the Washington political wiseacres." By reason of their "wavering policy," we are now "witnessing a sorry spectacle of useless bloodshed, which, 'for the sake of humanity,' we should be glad to see brought to a speedy close through any legitimate channel." Well, *que faire?* Mr. Foreman's plan would be for the United States gradually and conditionally to withdraw from the islands. He would have us control the foreign trade of the archipelago; retain naval stations as might be agreed; even ask the Filipinos (but surely we should be ashamed to do this) to reimburse us for the $20,000,000 which, in an evil hour, we paid for them and their lands. These details are comparatively unimportant. The main thing is that this chief Philippine expert considers American occupation of the archipelago a demonstrated fiasco, and that the proper thing for America now to do is to "extricate herself with honor."

Mr. Foreman scarcely alludes to American partisan politics. For all that appears in his article, he does not know that the subject of it is a burning question in a Presidential campaign. He writes, not to aid this or that party, or this or that candidate, but to urge the solution of a great problem near his heart. What he sees is that our Philippine policy was misconceived from the beginning, and that misery has stalked behind it from the first. Philippine agriculture and industry have been ruined. Filipino sentiment has been outraged. "Independence or death or perpetual warfare" is the fixed policy of the abler and educated natives. Something must be done. What Mr. Foreman would do is, as has been seen, very like what Mr. Schurz would do, not dissimilar to the plan which Mr. Bryan has said he favors. This, we are aware, is enough to condemn it utterly until the campaign is over; afterwards, it may be, even Republicans will admit that Mr. Foreman speaks not only with authority, but with truth and soberness.

STANDING FOR OFFICE.

When George Washington "proposed" himself to the electors of Frederick County, Virginia, as a candidate for the House of Burgesses, he was but following an age-long political custom of the English race. We see its survival in nearly full vigor in England to-day. Sir Edward Clarke made himself obnoxious to his Conservative party chiefs by his opposition to Chamberlain's Transvaal policy, and it is a question if he can secure a seat in the next Parliament. He has recently announced, however, that he will "stand" for one of the London constituencies. Similarly, the Right Hon. Horace Plunkett, who has done so much for the agricultural renaissance of Ireland, has become suspect of party irregularity, in the eyes of the Unionist managers, and they threaten to turn him out of his Irish seat. He appealed to Mr. Balfour, who, in a manly letter, advised him, no matter what the party agents might do, to "throw himself" upon the electors.

There we have the old and honorable way of seeking office. Men of parts, men of public spirit, men of laudable ambition, ask their neighbors, or their fellow-citizens of a wider than local circumscription, for an opportunity to serve the commonwealth. It is a frank and open proceeding. The appeal is primarily, of course, to common political sentiments—the *idem sentire de republica*—and party coöperation is usually implied. But it is the directness and simplicity of this way of getting a candidate before the voters which long endeared the name and the act of "standing for office" to American political affections. It was a part of our "career open to talent." We used religiously to teach our boys that, to eloquence and ability and character, the doors of political preferment would swing wide on oiled hinges. At any rate, the ambitious youth might rest assured that it would be wholly a question between him and the voters. He might freely "announce" himself a candidate, might decide to "stand" for a given office at the ensuing election, and nothing would then come between him and the verdict of his fellow-freemen.

We have changed all that—how completely, the defeat of Mr. Coler in the Democratic Convention comes freshly to bite into our minds. He was a man who had the audacity to say that he would stand for office if the people wanted him, and hell hath no fury like the bosses who fell upon and slaughtered him. It is not necessary to make a hero of Mr. Coler, or to insist that he is of the stuff of which political reformers are made. We say nothing about that. But no one can deny his ability, no one can dispute his great public services as Comptroller, no one but the chivalrous Roosevelt can question his courage. If we hold to Aristotle's definition of courage as great and noble in proportion to the object which calls it out, we shall have to reckon the courage of an ambitious young man who openly defies the corrupt boss of his party, as many degrees higher than that of a military hero who waxes valiant in the stricken field, but puts his legs meekly under *his* boss's breakfast-table. This high and fine political courage has certainly been displayed by Mr. Coler. He also struck out in the bold initiative—though it was, as we have said, only a return to nobler manners—of declaring that he sought his nomination, not from the bosses, but from the people.

No need to ask further for the reason of the extraordinary rage which such a candidacy aroused in the bosoms of both Platt and Croker. It was a blow at their common system. Once permit it to be seen that a man could "stand for office" in the free air of heaven, instead of crawling for office to 49 Broadway or to Croker's Club, and the boss business would be shaken to its foundations. Croker had special personal reasons for hating a man who had publicly referred to the smell of corruption on his gold, but both bosses worked hand in glove to compass the defeat of the impudent fellow who denied their divine right to bestow office. Their wrath was the wrath of a caste imperilled, a privilege assailed, a monopoly infringed upon. Like two mediæval brigands, the two bosses had apportioned the field of plunder. Dick Turpin was to rob coaches in the city; Black Tom was to waylay horsemen in the country roads. No wonder that they both thrust their pistols into the face of a man who called this ancient right of theirs "commercialism in politics." Dropping figures drawn from the highwayman's pursuits, trippingly though they fall from the tongue in speaking of our political methods, we may say that the fury of the

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bosses against Mr. Coler is very like that of the "King's Friends" against Wilkes a century and a half ago. Burke applied his keen analysis to the "violent rage for the punishment of Mr. Wilkes," and his conclusion was: "The point to be gained by the cabal was this: that the precedent should be established tending to show that *the favor of the people was not so sure a road as the favor of the court even to popular honors and popular trusts.*"

Does not this language exactly, almost startlingly, fit the situation to-day as Croker and Platt have made it? They are the court, the cabal, arrogantly asserting the right to distribute every political favor, and they will move heaven and earth rather than allow it to appear that a man can obtain office without crouching and creeping to them. That is the great lesson of Mr. Coler's defeat. Croker would wreck his party rather than let the masses of it nominate a man for Governor who did not wear a brand on his shoulder showing that he had served his time in the boss's galleys. This looks like a reckless and brutal proceeding, but Croker is quite right. It is a sure instinct which leads him and Platt to reserve a superheated hatred for any ambitious man who dares to consult the people without first consulting the boss. To tolerate this would be as fatal as it would have been for the silversmiths of Ephesus to allow the apostles to preach against idolatry. "This our trade is in danger," cried the image-makers, and "This our trade is in danger" is what the bosses shriek, blanched with fear, when they see a brave man appealing over their heads to the people direct.

This humiliating subjection of American freemen has gone on long, and there are few signs of their immediate escape from the thraldom. Mr. Coler, even, seems cowed. If he had not hastened to capitulate to his "party"—to a herd of cattle, that is, driven under Croker's lash—he might have put himself at the head of a movement which would have swept the State, to the confusion of both bosses. Some day, however, we shall find a man who will be bold enough and wise enough to throw himself upon the voters for election as Governor, as well as for nomination as Governor. That would be to stand for office in good old American fashion. As it is, every candidate for office in this State seems to think that the curse of the serpent in Eden is a stringent command laid upon himself: Upon thy belly shalt thou go, and dust shalt thou eat all the days of thy life.

THE PROHIBITION EPISODE IN MAINE.

The most curious and dramatic episode of the State election in Maine on September 11 was the contest for Sheriff in Cumberland County, which includes the city of Portland. In the face of large majorities for the other Republican candidates for State and local offices, Oren T. Despeaux, the nominee for Sheriff, was defeated by the Prohibition candidate, the Rev. Samuel F. Pearson of Portland.

Mr. Despeaux was elected Sheriff in 1898 by a plurality of 2,163, carrying eighteen of the twenty-six cities and towns in the county. His plurality in Portland was 772. In a total vote of 13,376, the Republican candidate received 7,299, as against 5,136 for the Democratic candidate, and 941 for Mr. Pearson, who was the Prohibition candidate in that year also. This year Mr. Pearson was elected by a plurality of 461, receiving 6,425 votes out of a total of 16,977. Of the votes for Mr. Pearson, Portland furnished 3,323—the same number, curiously enough, that it cast for Mr. Despeaux in 1898. For the other county offices the Republican candidates were elected by pluralities of over 4,000 in each case. The opposition to Mr. Despeaux, and, in consequence, the remarkable gains for the Prohibitionists, came largely from Republicans, many of whom voted the straight Prohibition ticket rather than take the chances of having their ballots thrown out as defective.

So remarkable a political upheaval has not occurred in Maine since the time of the Greenback campaign, when the Republicans lost the State, twenty years ago. Its immediate occasion, however, is entirely local, and is to be found mainly in the widespread dissatisfaction with the administration of the prohibitory liquor law in Cumberland County during the last two years. The bearing of the recent contest upon the liquor situation in Maine is so close, however, and its revelations of the state of public opinion on that subject so striking, as to give to the election in this particular more than local significance.

The history of the enforcement of the "Maine law" in recent years has been one of ups and downs, in which the increasing disregard for both the letter and the spirit of the law has been the feature of most prominence. By all candid observers the prohibitory law has long been seen to be a failure so far as the honest and effective regulation of the liquor traffic is concerned, while the general regard for it is unquestionably less to-day than ever before. As a natural consequence, the declining respect for the law has been accompanied by a widespread disposition to use it to maintain political influence and exact official blackmail. The sale of liquor by such persons as could pay well for the privilege has, in general, been allowed, while the rigors of the law have been visited upon those who failed to contribute the prescribed quota, or who, for any reason, incurred the disfavor of the officials temporarily in power. The amount of liquor fines turned into the various county treasuries annually is now very large, and has come to be an item of recognized importance in county finances; but since the fines in individual cases are usually $100 and costs, the actual régime in the State has for years been one of low license. Maine, in other words, has the benefits neither of prohibition nor of a well-administered license system, and the Republican party, which is responsible for the failure to give the people a chance to adopt some other plan, is widely charged with virtual alliance with the liquor interests, and with dependence upon the contributions of liquor-dealers, both within and without the State, for a large part of its campaign funds.

The laxity in the enforcement of the prohibitory law has not, however, been received with uniform acquiescence by the people, and a too outrageous disregard of the law has been more than once resented at the polls. The overturn in Cumberland County is the most striking recent manifestation of popular disgust with official corruption. A rigorous enforcement of the law in 1894 nearly cost the then Sheriff his reëlection, and for the next two years the expression at the polls was interpreted as a popular mandate in favor of a more "liberal" policy. The continuance of "liberalism" for two years more, however, brought the voters to the verge of revolt, and some of the men who were urging his election in 1898 on the ground that he would give the law a fair and reasonable interpretation, helped defeat Mr. Despeaux in 1900.

The administration of the liquor law throughout the county during the past two years has been a stench in the nostrils of decent people. A number of hotels in Portland have, within that period, set up and maintained open bars, while several smaller houses have derived their chief income from liquor sales. Liquor has been freely sold in saloons and stores all over the city, and at the restaurant of the Union Railway Station. In the larger towns of the county, outside of Portland, substantially similar conditions obtain, and in at least one large town the deputy sheriff himself is charged with having a pecuniary interest in a local saloon. The repeated efforts of prominent and influential citizens to close some of the worst resorts, and even to secure the abatement of disreputable houses, have met with scant attention and little success; suspension of business for a brief period being, in general, the most that could be obtained. In consequence of this "open-door" policy, the personal income of the Sheriff has reached a high figure, a conservative estimate of the value of the office fixing the income at $25,000 a year. That the receipts of the county have also been largely swelled is true, as is the further fact that the fee system, under which this large income is possible, is the creation of the Legislature, and, consequently, something for which the Sheriff is not

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responsible; but neither of these considerations avails to shake the firm belief of the public that the legitimate income of the Sheriff has been greatly increased by systematic exactions from liquor-dealers and from the proprietors of other illegal resorts.

If the people of Cumberland County really want a thorough-going and bona-fide enforcement of the prohibitory law for the next two years, a better chance of their getting it now exists than has for a long time been the case. Mr. Pearson, the Sheriff-elect, is a pronounced temperance advocate, and a man of force, vigor, and undoubted sincerity. His public pledges, given during the campaign, have been plain and explicit. There is little in the recent overturn, however, to indicate that a thorough-going enforcement of the law will meet with popular approval. What the people have protested against is systematic and unblushing protection of the liquor business for the financial profit of the Sheriff and his deputies; but there is small reason to believe that they will long accept a régime of strict enforcement. How Mr. Pearson will construe the popular mandate, when he has learned what the public really want, remains to be seen. If, before the end of his term, the devil of free rum and alleged "public sentiment" does not take him up on to a high mountain, and show him all the advantages and profit of compromise, it will be a new thing in the history of prohibition in Maine.

STRETENSK TO LAKE BAIKAL.

IRKUTSK, SIBERIA, August 18, 1900.

Stretensk is the present head of navigation on the Amur River—or, rather, of its principal branch, the Shilka. There the Trans-Siberian Railway now ends, connecting with boats for the lower part of the river. For short periods each year, however, the Shilka is navigable to Tchita, two hundred miles farther up, where the total elevation above the sea is 2,400 feet. In former times a vast amount of traffic floated down the river from this point during high water. Now the railroad carries it all on to Stretensk, which has rapidly grown to be a town of 7,000 inhabitants.

When we reached the place on the 5th of August, it was little else than a military camp. The war came on a year too soon for Russia. The railroad through Mantchuria branches off at Budaloffskia, about 150 miles west. Not only, however, is it not completed, but the Chinese have destroyed the part that has been built, so that there is no overland route for Russia to the field of action, except by way of Stretensk and the Amur. Below Stretensk the country is so rugged for 500 miles that there is not even a wagon-road, but only a bridle-path, and that a difficult one; so that, except when the river is frozen or in a full stage of water, this distance is practically impassable for an army.

The latter part of July and the month of August furnish the period of best navigation. The Russians are therefore hurrying forward troops with all possible speed, and are making use of every available week of transportation down the river. Altogether there are about forty steamers and twice as many barges running on this portion of the stream. On our way up, we met the entire fleet, carrying, as we estimated, about 15,000 soldiers. They had been delayed by low water. As it would, at the shortest, be two weeks before they could return for another load, resort was had to rafts and barges, hastily constructed for the occasion, which were set adrift to float down the current, being guided by huge oars projecting from the sides, and to some extent propelled by that means. These singular objects, loaded with soldiers and baggage-wagons and horses, seemed to transport us back to classic times when oars were the sole reliance in propelling battleships. At Stretensk hundreds of these rafts were being fitted up for immediate use. And they would all be needed; for the congestion at this point is bound to increase until the close of navigation. Since leaving the river, we have met regularly two long trains of soldiers every day, each carrying about 15,000 soldiers. Two weeks have now elapsed and still the stream continues. At Lake Baikal to-day we have witnessed the embarkation of two regiments upon the immense steam ferryboat which temporarily makes connection across the lake. Thirty freight-cars, with horses and provisions, and 1,500 soldiers were taken aboard at each trip, to be landed at the station on the other side, near the mouth of the Selenga River, about fifty miles distant.

This boat has been in use only a few weeks. Indeed, the railroad from Lake Baikal eastward has been opened only during the present year, and only a part of that time for regular passenger trains. Just what success it will have in the winter, and during the uncertain conditions before and after, remains to be seen. The crossing of Lake Baikal is one of the most difficult problems the engineers of the Trans-Siberian Railway have had. The entire southern end of the lake is surrounded by precipitous mountains, which are well-nigh impassable. A survey, however, has been made, but it involves the expenditure of a fabulous amount of money, and the plans cannot be carried out short of four or five years. Meanwhile, during the season of navigation, the transporting capacity of the road is limited by that of the ferriage across the lake. At present, there is only the one large boat which can carry trains, and it can make only two trips a day. There are smaller steamers, but their capacity is limited. Regular passengers are still transferred on these. Perhaps, however, this is because the entire service of the large steamer is now demanded by the army.

This steam-ferry, the *Baikal*, was made in England and put together here. It is 350 feet long, and wide enough to accommodate three railroad tracks side by side. It draws twenty feet of water, and its machinery is all below. An upper story furnishes state-rooms and dining-halls, while its upper deck easily accommodates a thousand soldiers. Under present conditions, it is a great success, but, as before remarked, how it will get along during the extraordinarily cold winter of this region, is a problem which must be regarded with much solicitude.

The distance from Stretensk to Lake Baikal is about 600 miles. The road is new, and, at the fastest, the Siberian trains run slow. We were three days of running time in making the distance. But the cars are very convenient and comfortable, and the eating-houses provide the traveller with the best of meals at about half the cost in the United States. There are first, second, and third-class coaches. The mass of the people ride in the third-class, at a charge of three-quarters of a cent per mile, for short distances, with liberal reductions on through rates. The third-class coaches are all provided with sleeping accommodations for each passenger. To be sure, it is only a hard plank, but it is ample in extent, and every one in Russia is expected to carry his own pillow and blanket. The second-class passengers have nicely upholstered seats which are readily transformed into beds, but they too must provide their own covering, as also must those of the first class. The sole advantage possessed by the first-class passengers is that when there are enough of them to occupy a section, a party can be secluded from the rest. There is no charge for the sleeping accommodations. The charge for second-class tickets is about twice that for the third-class, and for the first-class about three times that for the third-class.

The railway from Stretensk to Lake Baikal passes over the continental divide of Asia, rising to about 4,000 feet a little west of Tchita. The Yavlonovoy Mountains, forming the crest of this divide, run southwest to northeast, extending continuously from Mongolia to Bering Strait. On the southeast they are bordered by a plateau about 2,500 feet above the sea. This is here about 200 miles wide, and possesses a climate and flora of its own, both of which are favorable to human settlement. All grains ripen readily when there is sufficient water, and everywhere on the uplands there is good pasturage. Immense herds of cattle were visible almost everywhere from the car-windows. Though the good land is by no means all occupied, there is already in Transbaikalia a population of about 700,000.

Nertchinsk, the first principal town passed through west of Stretensk, has been for two hundred years a centre of mining operations, to which the Government has sent convicts sentenced to hard labor. The city has a population of 6,700, and the department of 91,000. Tchita, a city of 12,000, where we stopped two days, is the capital of the province. One is surprised not only at the beauty of its situation, but at the fertility of the surrounding country. The railway is adding greatly to its importance. Its public and school buildings are numerous and imposing, but its streets are entirely without pavements. The territory from Tchita to Lake Baikal consists in the main of a plateau, 300 miles wide and about 5,000 feet above the sea, in which the headwaters of the Amur, the Lena, and the Yenesei take their rise at a common level. This tract is bleak and well-nigh uninhabitable. It, too, extends from the plains of Mongolia to the vicinity of Bering Strait. But the rivers have deeply eroded its surface, and furnished in their courses long lines of fertile fields. These are specially open to settlement towards the south. The railroad strikes over the eastern border into the valley of the Kylok, and for two hundred miles finds productive lands, con-

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genial climate, and prosperous settlements. At Petroffsky we found a large and flourishing village gathered about a blast-furnace. The iron ore was near by, and the mountains furnished wood for charcoal to an unlimited extent.

At Verkne Udinsk on the Selenga River we struck the great caravan route from Kalgan, China, across Mongolia. Over this route for hundreds of years the tea and many other commodities used in Russia have been brought on camels' backs. The city has a population of 8,000, and in midwinter is the scene of an enormous fair, at which millions of dollars' worth of goods are sold every year. Heretofore the best time to cross Lake Baikal and for travelling in general in this region has been in the winter, when it is frozen over. But all this will be rapidly changed now that the railroad is an accomplished fact.

We are apt to forget that this whole region has been the scene of some of the world's greatest historical events. It was in the valley of the Onon, which enters the Shilka above Nertchinsk, that in the twelfth century Genghis Khan originated. With its conquering tribes, this remarkable man overran China to the East, and Turkestan and Russia to the west, setting in motion the forces which drove the Turks into Europe. His conquests still profoundly affect the political questions awaiting the twentieth century. And now again it is a Mantchurian dynasty in China that is drawing the armies of the whole civilized world to a great contest on the shores of the Pacific. The tramp, tramp, tramp of these forces is continually in our ears, and their patriotic songs greet us at all times of day and night as they reverse the order of the thirteenth century, and go on their way to establish European dominion in the Far East.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

THE PARIS COPYRIGHT CONGRESS.

PARIS, July, 1900.

The twenty-second international congress of literary and artistic property was held at Paris from July 16 to 21, inclusive, as one of the series of congresses being held in that city in connection with the Universal Exposition. The first of these copyright congresses was organized and held at Paris in 1878, during the Exposition of that year, and a second reunion took place in Paris during the Exposition of 1889. This year's congress was, therefore, the third which has been held in that city. In the intervening years there have been annual reunions in Amsterdam, Antwerp, Barcelona, Berne, Brussels, Dresden, Geneva, Heidelberg, Lisbon, London, Madrid, Milan, Monaco, Neuchâtel, Rome, Turin, Venice, and Vienna.

The fact that this Congress was only one in so extensive a series (one hundred and twenty-seven congresses) to be covered between the dates of May 24 and October 13, partly accounted, doubtless, for its having less of an official and formal aspect than the previous annual congresses held outside of France. It was strictly a working congress, with no unnecessary ceremonial, and with only a sufficient social and recreative programme to give one a pleasant sense of hospitality proffered and the needed rest and diversion between sessions. Needless speech-making was dispensed with, and, for the usual proceeding of each official delegate publicly presenting his credentials, as it were, in a short speech, there was substituted the selection of two delegates—M. Paul Wauwermans of Belgium (a speaker of some oratorical power), to speak in the name of the official delegates as a body, and M. Djuvara, the Rumanian Minister, in behalf of the larger contingent of other foreign attendants.

To encourage the attendance of persons interested, a special arrangement was made whereby, instead of the usual requirement of the membership dues of the Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale and an additional attendance fee, one admission fee only, of twenty-five francs, was made available to any person "in the literary or artistic world" who should be presented by a member of any one of the twenty literary, artistic, or press associations under whose united auspices the Congress was held. Persons thus admitted not only were allowed to participate in the public sessions of the Congress, but were invited to be present at the social functions. In this connection it may be mentioned that neither official nor ordinary attendance included "dead-head" privileges. The membership card gave free admission only to the sessions of the Congress (not to the Exposition) when these were held within the Exposition grounds, and, in addition, to the special exhibition of the city of Paris. Twice, however, the members of the Congress were invited to special exhibits, and on those occasions membership cards gave admission to the Exposition grounds.

In the way of social entertainment something was provided for each day: Monday evening, reserved seats—largely unoccupied, owing to the great heat—at one of the theatres, where a classical performance was given; Tuesday afternoon, excursion to Chantilly—now the summer home of the Institute of France—with time for a detailed examination of the château and the treasures of the Musée Condé, in addition to a drive in the great forest, luncheon, and dinner; Wednesday, soirée at the home of the Minister of Public Works, where one was agreeably surprised to see the size and beauty of the gardens hidden behind the forbidding façades of the ancient aristocratic Faubourg St.-Germain; Thursday, five-o'clock reception—speeches and buffet lunch—at the Hôtel de Ville, and an inspection of the gorgeously decorated rooms; Friday, dinner given by M. Pouillet, President of the Association and of the Congress, in a restaurant on the first platform of the Eiffel Tower, with the fairy-like scene of the illuminated Exposition grounds spread out below; and, finally, on Saturday, an excursion by steamer down the Seine to Sèvres, with a visit to the famous manufactory, and a late dinner on the terrace at Bellevue, returning by river through the brilliantly lighted fair grounds.

The sessions of the Congress were not held at the Palais des Congrès, within the Exposition grounds, but at the "Hôtel du livre" of the Cercle de la Librairie, a noticeable structure at the east end of the Boulevard Saint-Germain, designed by Garnier, the architect of the Grand Opera-house. The large hall used for the public sessions was a handsome apartment, very suitable for the purpose, while smaller rooms served for committee meetings, etc. The attendance—affected by the exceptional heat experienced during the week of the Congress, and the counter attractions offered by the Exposition—was not large, rarely exceeding fifty to sixty persons at any one session, and varying greatly. The international official representation was not so great as might have been expected, eight nations only sending accredited delegates: Belgium, Paul Wauwermans; Ecuador, Pallares Arteta; France, Alexandre Chaumat, from the Ministry of Justice, M. Lanel, from the Ministry of State, and MM. Desjardin, Lionel Laroze, and Poupinel, from the Ministry of Public Instruction; Mexico, Gustavo Baz, Sres. Contrevas and Ireneo Paz; Norway, Stand Lund; Russia, M. Pilenko; Spain, Sres. Calzado and De Huertas; the United States, Thorvald Solberg. In addition to these, the German and Swiss representation was of a quasi-official character, the contingent from Germany including, among several delegates, Dr. Albert Osterrieth of Berlin, who has been a prominent figure in previous congresses for several years, while from Switzerland the Berne International Copyright Bureau was represented by its highly honored director, M. Henri Morel, and its First and Second Secretaries, Prof. Ernest Röthlisberger and M Léon Poinsard. England was again conspicuous by the absence of any representative. Italy, though not officially represented, indicated her lively interest in copyright matters by the strength of her delegation. Unofficial representatives were also present from Brazil, Japan, Monaco, and Rumania.

As Parisian literary celebrities had distinguished previous copyright congresses by their presence, their non-attendance at this Congress—with the exception of certain juridical writers of note interested in copyright—was noticeable, and an unexpected disappointment, although it was not difficult to understand why Parisians should shun the capital during a period of such unusually high temperature and the anomalous conditions incident to the great Fair. The novelist, Marcel Prévost, was to have delivered the address of welcome, but was prevented by illness. M. Georges Leygues, the Minister of Public Instruction, presided at the formal opening session. It was, as has been stated already, a working congress. Committee sessions began at 8:30 o'clock, and the working-day extended to four or five o'clock, with intermission only for "déjeuner." The committee meetings, open to such members of the Congress as were interested, were very informal, the chief workers sitting around a large oval table in the centre of the room, with others grouped about, and afforded opportunity for an interesting exhibition of French vivacity and warmth of discussion, tempered by unfailing courtesy and good humor.

Instead of the usual long and varied programme, it was wisely planned to concentrate the attention of the Congress more especially upon one important subject for discussion, viz., the text of a proposed typical law for the protection of literary and artistic property. A paper by M. Édouard Mack, entitled, "Du domaine public payant," dealing with the question of the rights inherent in literary and artistic works after the expiration of the statutory term of protection, was read; but although considerable interest was shown, the Congress came to no conclusions concerning this important subject, referring the matter for further consideration to some future congress. The sessions of one day were de-

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voted to considering the present status of copyright in various countries, papers or oral reports being submitted for Austria-Hungary, by Dr. Carl Junker (summarized by Professor Röthlisberger); Germany, by Dr. Osterrieth; Italy, by Sig. Ferrucio Foá; Japan, by M. Saburo Yamada of Tokio; Rumania, by his Excellency T. G. Djuvara; Russia, by M. Pilenko; Spain, by Señor de Huertas; Switzerland, by M. Léon Poinsard; the United States, by the Register of Copyrights. A brief notice of the Convention of Montevideo—the copyright union of the Latin-American countries—was submitted by M. Alcide Darras of Paris.

The special feature of the Congress, as previously stated, was the evolution of the text for a "type" law of copyright. The programme was admirably arranged to eliminate from the public sessions (*séances plénières*) unnecessary debate by providing four preliminary, informal sessions devoted to a free discussion of the subject by writers, dramatists, composers, artists, and publishers, in its relation, respectively, to literary, dramatic, musical, and artistic productions, and the adequate legal protection for each, followed by three general sessions in which each article of the proposed law was separately read, discussed, and voted upon. The theme was not new. In previous annual conferences of the Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale the subject had been threshed over upon reports presented at Dresden, 1895; Berne, 1896; Monaco, 1897; and Turin, 1898. At this last Congress the matter was referred to a committee of twenty-four, under the chairmanship of M. Pouillet. This body was fairly representative of the various interests involved, even architects and engineers being represented. Special recognition is due, in this connection, to M. Georges Maillard, the editor of *Annales de la Propriété Industrielle, Artistique et Littéraire*, for his persevering and intelligent labor, extending over a series of years, in collating the material regarding this question, and for his excellent presentation of it. The text submitted to the Congress was made up from the various votes and resolutions after careful comparison. It was discussed with warm and sustained interest, amended in several particulars, and adopted by affirmative vote on each article. Want of space prevents at this time more than a brief summarizing of the principles embodied, but I hope to return to this important document later. For the sake of brevity, related provisions are brought together without regard to deviation from the order of the paragraphs in the text adopted.

The principal provisions of this proposed model law may be summarized as follows: The *author* of a work of the intellect—without regard to his nationality, or the place of first publication of his production—has the exclusive right to publish or reproduce it, by whatever process, in whatever form, or for whatever purpose. This right applies to all manifestations of thought, written or spoken, including contributions to the press, dramatic, musical, and choregraphic productions, and all works of graphic and plastic art, independent of their merit, use, or destination. The exercise of this right should not be subordinated to the accomplishment of any formalities whatever. Collaborators have equal rights in their common work, unless there should be stipulations to the contrary; and in the case of an author dying without heirs, his part accrues to the benefit of the other joint authors or their heirs. The author's exclusive right covers all reproduction, in whole or in part, made without his consent, as well as translation, representation, and public performance, abridgment, adaptation, illustration, additions, alterations, dramatization of novels, or transformation of plays into novels. Reproduction by means of another art, rearrangement of music, and reproduction of music by musical instruments, and any such reproduction without his consent or the consent of his heirs, are illegal.

Short citations from a published work—with proper credit given—and reproductions of Parliamentary debates and addresses delivered at public meetings, for the purpose of criticism, discussion, information, or education, are permissible, and laws and judicial decisions are held not to be subject to copyright.

The author's right of reproduction is held to be independent of the right of property in the material object, and the cession of the latter does not carry with it the transference of the right of reproduction. The cession of any rights appertaining to an author is to be restrictively interpreted. The term of copyright is the life of the author and eighty years after his death; in the case of joint authors, eighty years after the death of the last survivor; and for anonymous and posthumous works, eighty years from the first authorized publication. This acceptance of the principle of a statutory limitation of the term of protection was not acquiesced in without demur on the part of those in favor of the perpetuity of copyright. The period fixed upon is that contained in the most liberal modern legislation embodying a limitation of the term of protection, namely, that of Spain.

In the case of illegal reproduction, the confiscation of plates and other articles pertaining to the infringement, and, upon unauthorized representation or public performance, seizure of the total receipts, shall be made for the benefit of the author or his heirs.

The proposed law differs most widely from legislation now in force in its careful provisions for enforcing the "moral rights" of an author. It is held that an author has the right to make known his authorship and to seek the protection of the courts against its usurpation; and that ceding his right of reproduction does not deprive him of the right to sue an infringer, or to scrutinize the reproduction of his book, and to oppose all modifications made without his consent, or to oppose the public exhibition of his work if changed against his will; and, after the author's death, in default of a proxy previously appointed by himself, his heirs have the power to insist that these moral rights shall be respected. No modification shall be made in a work after the author's death without notification to the public. Any trespass on these rights of an author, or the usurpation of his name, or any fraudulent imitation of his signature or distinctive mark adopted by him, shall be just cause for an action for damages, and, if wilfully made, for a penal suit.

Among the miscellaneous resolutions voted by the Congress were several relating to the possible amendment of the Berne Copyright Convention. The changes desired are in the direction of international protection for architectural works upon the same basis as that of other works of art; direct stipulation that the transfer of a work of art shall not involve the assignment of the right of reproduction; and the provision that the usurpation of an artist's name, or any distinctive mark adopted by him, shall be subject to criminal-law penalties. It was also thought that it would be preferable to abrogate all special copyright treaties entered into before the International Copyright Union was formed, retaining in force only such provisions in the special treaties as secure more favorable conditions than the articles of the Berne Convention; and that, as the coexistence of special treaties and the Berne Convention complicated to no purpose the protection in force within the Union, such special treaties should be discouraged and a definite effort be made at the next diplomatic conference for the revision of the Berne Treaty, to have incorporated into its text all provisions in special treaties more favorable than the stipulations of the Berne Convention. But if special treaties are entered into, they should contain no stipulations *less* favorable than the concurrent provisions of the laws of the contracting countries.

The desire was expressed by formal vote that the principal countries not yet within the Berne Union, notably Austria, Denmark, Hungary, the Netherlands, Rumania, Russia, Sweden, the United States, and the Spanish-American republics, be urged by the Executive Committee to become members of that Union. It was proposed also that the Treaty of Montevideo be studied in comparison with the stipulations of the Berne Convention with a view to obtain the adhesion of the South American republics to the latter.

There was some criticism of the provisions of the United States laws in force, and a special vote was passed expressing the hope that Congress would repeal all such provisions in the present law as debarred the United States from entry into the Berne Union.

Expressions of sympathy were voted in recognition of the efforts being made to amend and enlarge copyright protection in various countries—Austria-Hungary, Germany, Italy, Rumania, and Switzerland. Among the miscellaneous resolutions passed, it was held that photographic works should be accorded the same protection given to graphic and plastic works of art; that the reproduction of press dispatches pure and simple be forbidden when it assumes the character of unfair competition, and that it should be a recognized principle that the artist has a right to demand the affixing of his name to his work.

The printed bibliography of the Congress is unusually meagre. Besides M. G. Maillard's 'Loi-type,' and Édouard Mack's pamphlet on 'Du Domaine public payant,' there is a 4-page leaflet, 'Sur le projet de réforme de la loi italienne [of copyright],' by Dr. Ferrucio Foá, and two Bulletins of the Association Littéraire et Artistique (3e série, No. 10), "Documents et Rapports," three monographs: "Du droit moral de l'auteur sur ses créations," by Jules Lermina, Édouard Mack, G. Maillard, and A. Vaunois; "De la protection des œuvres de l'art appliqué," by E. Soleau; "De la protection des œuvres scientifiques," by G. L. Pesce; (3e série, No. 11), containing a useful summary and index of the reports of the Association from December, 1878, to July, 1900, by M. Lermina, Secretary, a

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preface by President Pouillet, the statutes and by-laws, and a list of the members.

The next Congress will meet at St. Petersburg in 1901.

Correspondence.

MR. BRYAN'S CONSISTENCY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In your paper of the 6th inst., I notice the remark that Mr. Bryan's support of the Spanish war, and his favoring the ratification of the peace treaty, and "some other things," prevent your crediting him with sincerity in his recent utterances with regard to the policy of our country toward the Philippine Islands. You also say that Mr. Bryan is the only prominent Democrat who has professed such sentiments, and that there is nothing to indicate that his party is behind him.

Permit me to call your attention to the fact that a year ago, in this very town, Mr. Bryan was professing the same sentiments. His address at Indianapolis was the same in substance with his speech here of a year ago. On that occasion Mr. Bryan was asked in my presence whether it was not probable that the Republican policy would be reversed, and that party declare in favor of the eventual independence of the islands. His answer was:

"I wish it might be so. I am not partisan enough to wish any advantage from what I regard as a menace of disaster to my country, but I do not consider it possible that the commercialism now dominant in the Republican organization will permit it. They would fear too much to be called to account for the money and lives already expended in holding the islands."

Mr. Bryan and his supporters made the campaign in this State a year ago upon this issue. Of his persistence and sincerity in it there can be no question. What the "other things" are which you mentioned I, of course, do not know, but that Mr. Bryan if elected would be able and determined to reverse the present Philippine policy seems to me beyond cavil. Enough Republicans would be glad to drop it.—Yours,

W. G. Hastings.

Wilber, Nebraska, September 12, 1900.

THE CURE FOR THE IMPERIAL DOG-BITE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Republican voters who deplore many past results of our course in the Philippine Islands, but whose convictions coincide with the general policy of their party, are asked by the *Nation* to transfer or withhold their votes by reason of the paramount importance of the particular feature above indicated.

It is apparently conceded that such voters are justified in regarding the Democratic candidate as pledged to carry out inexorably a financial policy which is not merely dangerous to prosperity, but subversive of national honor, and also as asserting views of social organization which are antagonistic to law and order.

The allegation, however, is, that the dangers of Imperialism are so pressing as to justify acquiescence in the success of such a candidate; and, moreover, that by placing him and his party in power these dangers would be averted.

The former position has heretofore received more attention than the latter, to the detriment, it would seem, of a comprehensive view, for it would be a sorry thing to make the sacrifice without a reasonable certainty of the desired result. It is of primary importance, therefore, to consider dispassionately whether a Democratic victory will, on the whole, tend to eradicate the alleged dangers.

The *Nation*, of course, uses the term "Imperialism" not as a mere campaign epithet, but as indicating the maintenance of a government, at present wholly external, but with the bona-fide intention of admitting the governed to progressive participation therein—a participation whose extent shall, it is true, be determined by ourselves, but which shall be as full as other responsibilities will permit.

The objections to this, or any other form of government not wholly proceeding from the governed class, lie in the danger of actual injustice to the subject and of injury to his self-respect, on the one hand, and, on the other, in the possibly graver danger of destructive reaction upon the morals and political ideals of the dominant class.

Now, can it be doubted that the tendency of the Democratic party, throughout the relatively large portion of our country where it is supreme, has been and is directly towards domestic Imperialism? Is it not the frankly avowed purpose of the most sincere and upright Southern Democrat to exclude practically a whole race, heretofore recognized as full citizens, from participation either in local or in general government? And does not every Imperialistic danger, both to the governed and to the dominant race, lurk in the policy thus asserted?

It would be unprofitable, in a communication of this character, to discuss the question whether the exclusion of the Southern negro from political rights may not be, on the whole, beneficial to him as well as to the community. So, also, would it be unprofitable to dilate upon the safety of Philippine interests in the hands of a Commission whose personnel is admirable, and whose charter of powers embodies our own Bill of Rights as an organic condition of the grant. The practical question is, whether the Democratic party, wherever it is in full control, is not wedded to a policy which is really Imperialism under another name.

Admitting that the Imperialistic spirit, in any form, is to be regarded with the greatest apprehension, shall we eradicate it by intrusting our Government to a party wherein so large an element fosters that spirit as a permanent and essential condition? The negro question of the future is not a mere sentimental reminiscence of past conflicts, but a social and political problem, fully as grave as that presented by the Philippine situation.

It would seem that the Republican voters to whom the *Nation* addresses its undoubtedly forcible persuasions, must choose between stepping backward, *towards* domestic Imperialism, as an ultimate goal, or stepping forward, *beyond* Imperialism, towards substantial self-government in our foreign possessions. Other things being equal, one might well prefer the party whose principles have heretofore been based on that view of human things which makes permanent Imperialism impossible; but, in the present case, other things are far from equal, for a Democratic victory means domestic Imperialism, plus Bryanism.—Very truly yours,

Joseph C. Fraley.

Philadelphia, September 11, 1900.

[Our correspondent is quite right in identifying the spirit of slavery (or that which disfranchises a black man on any ground for which it will not disfranchise a white) with the McKinley spirit that insists on ruling the Filipinos *vi et armis* for their own good. He is obviously quite wrong in choosing the Republican party as an instrument for suppressing Imperialism in the Philippines. It is Senator Hoar's way, but there is no more sense in it than there would be in choosing the Democratic party as an instrument for restoring equal political rights at the South. And what does Mr. Fraley's Republican party propose to do about *that*?—Ed. Nation.]

GOVERNMENT BY INJUNCTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your comments, in your issue of September 6, upon Mr. Bryan's "unimpeachable" references to government by injunction in his Labor Day speech in this city compel me to draw your attention to some other publications on that subject, as I like to have the *Nation* agree with me, and additional information and thought may cause you to change your views.

The first is an opinion by the Supreme Court of Appeals of Virginia (Carter vs. Commonwealth, 45 L. R. A., 310). The question in the case was whether a legislative act prescribing that contempts of court should not be punished without a jury deprived the court of jurisdiction to punish the contempt without the intervention of a jury. The Court said, in its opinion: "In public apprehension the Legislature is deemed in a peculiar sense the agent and representative of the people," but "a court and judge thereof is as much an agent and servant of the people as any other officer of government." Moreover, "in the courts created by the Constitution there is an inherent power of self-defence and self-preservation," and "this power may be regulated but cannot be destroyed, or so far diminished as to be rendered ineffectual by legislative enactment"; "the inherent power of courts created by the Constitution to enforce respect and obedience by punishing contempts without a jury trial cannot be taken away by the Legislature."

The Supreme Court of this State recently said: "If the Legislature by inadvertence assumes the exercise of a power belonging to the judicial department, it should only be necessary to call their attention to the restraint imposed by the Constitution."

The law as to injunction in labor disputes was pretty well settled by the United States Supreme Court in the case of E. V. Debs (158 U. S. 564), and I had always understood that nothing was passed by Congress changing that law for the reason that the lawyers of that body could see no way of doing it.

A very good exposition of this question from a layman's point of view was given in

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the *Nation*, No. 1683, page 256, and I am only sorry that your paper has now gotten so far from the views therein expressed.

My own opinion is, that there would be more danger to the institutions of this country from a serious and thorough attempt to change the law on "government by injunction" than there is from "Imperialism"—and I am as much of an Anti-Imperialist as need be.

Yours truly, JAMES A. MILLER.

CHICAGO, September 10, 1900.

[It is one thing for a court to punish an act of contempt committed in its presence, or by a particular person who has been commanded to do or refrain from doing a specified act. It is another thing for a court to enjoin all creation from violating the law or disturbing the peace. Sheriffs and constables ought to preserve order, and it is plain enough that if courts of equity undertake this task, the political consequences may be disastrous.—ED. NATION.]

WAS THE TRANSVAAL A FOREIGN STATE?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Allison will find that the character of the Transvaal as a foreign state was distinctly recognized in the case of the Jameson Raiders, who were tried under the Foreign Enlistment Act for fitting out an expedition against a foreign state friendly to the British Government.

I did not say that any women and children had been turned out to perish. I deprecated the farm-burning policy of the violent party in England, as tending to that result. An English journal compares their proposals to the proceedings of Weyler in Cuba.

EQUITY.

September 15, 1900.

Notes.

John Morley's study of Oliver Cromwell now running in the *Century* will be brought out in book form by the Century Co. during the autumn.

Next month Macmillan Co. will have ready 'In the Palace of the King,' a love story of old Madrid, by F. Marion Crawford; and 'America's Economic Supremacy,' by Brooks Adams, is just appearing.

Ginn & Co. publish directly 'The Beginnings of English Literature,' by Prof. Charlton M. Lewis of Yale.

The rubricated edition of Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey' just issued by Dodd, Mead & Co. is handsome in the main, but lapses from the nicest taste in its overweight of black and red in the running-title. "Arranged, designed, and printed by the University Press, Cambridge, U. S. A.," we read on the verso of the title-leaf; and this vouches for a degree of excellence in the typography sufficient to satisfy the ordinary purchaser.

Prof. J. B. Thayer of the Harvard Law School has brought out a second edition of his 'Selection of Cases on Evidence at the Common Law' (Cambridge: Charles W. Sever & Co.). This book, which may now be considered a companion volume of the author's recently published treatise on Evidence, has already attained (partly through its notes and partly through its arrangement) a distinct and enviable independent standing as a book of the law. It is, of course, primarily for students, but, as it has often proved in other cases, the book for students has turned out to be also the book for practitioners. In the present edition the size of the volume is not much increased, but many changes and improvements have been made.

With volume vii., Prof. J. B. Bury completes his scholarly edition of Gibbon's 'History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire' (London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan). The appendix is comparatively brief, and is most valuable for its enumeration of sources regarding the siege of Constantinople unknown to Gibbon; yet these sum up in weight disproportionately to their number. Mrs. Bury has compiled the index, which fills more than sixty pages.

It is amazing how long it takes the military glories of the present Administration to penetrate the cyclopædias. Here is the Rev. James Wood's 'Nuttall Encyclopædia,' in its twentieth thousand (London and New York: Frederick Warne & Co.), which admits Col. Bryan—but purely for his civic prominence—while never a mention is made of Roosevelt, Miles, or Otis, of Dewey or Sampson, of Lodge or Long. Such unstrenuous characters, on the other hand, as Henry James and John Fiske, Howells and "Uncle Remus," and Bret Harte, have, by some "pull" or conspiracy, forced their way in. The warriors, however, are neglected along with many American men of science and poets, as was to be expected in an English encyclopædia. We turn next to the prominent figures in the South African revolution, and here Dr. Jameson's name "leads all the rest." He gets 18 lines for himself and his "ill-fated" expedition, while Kitchener gets 16, Chamberlain 11, Cecil Rhodes 10, Roberts 9, and Krüger 7. The work has the shortcomings inevitable from its size, but will be useful to many who can afford nothing larger.

All three of the Presidential candidates who genuinely divide public attention figure in the volume of 'Patriotic Eloquence relating to the Spanish-American War and its Issues,' compiled by two professors of elocution, Messrs. Robert I. Fulton and Thomas C. Trueblood (Scribners). Sufficiently full examples are given in 340 pages, from Lyman Abbott to Henry Watterson and Senator Wolcott. Senator Lodge would probably not allow Senator Hoar's eloquence to be patriotic. Both are represented, along with Bourke Cockran, Chauncey Depew, Secretary Long, Whitelaw Reid, Carl Schurz, Charles Emory Smith, Henry van Dyke, and many others, including even Sir Wilfred Laurier. Biographical notices are appended, and such has been the aptness of the selections (generally revised as well as often pointed out by the respective orators) that the compilation is really a useful campaign text-book.

The E. P. Grow Publishing Co. send out a pretty little volume on the Brook Trout, by Charles Barker Bradford. There is not much of the literary quality in it, but the angler will find enough of practical value to make it a welcome addition to his library. Its most interesting feature is a description, or rather series of descriptions, of a trout region in the Pocono Mountains of Pennsylvania. D. W. C. Farrington contributes a few pages of humorous "Trout Truths," which contain more of the real essence of angling than many an entire volume. For instance, "The desire for fishing is like some diseases, in attacking a man with great severity without notice." Or, "A cloudy day is best except when they rise better on a bright sunny one. They also often bite well when it rains." A letter of hearty appreciation from ex-President Cleveland is reproduced in miniature.

The younger generation, lay or medical, naturally places greater stress upon the efficacy of medication than do those with a wider horizon of experience, who see that guiding rather than forcing brings back aberrant health. The elders recognize how much disease is self-inflicted by unconscious violations of the laws of physiology, and Dr. George S. Keith's 'Plea for a Simpler Life' (London: Black; New York: Macmillan) is an appeal, especially to the British public, to eat and drink less, and to his profession to assist nature by inculcating abstinence (miscalled starving), by the internal and external use of heat, by placing a true estimate upon some of the extract-foods, and by narrowing the limits of gross therapeutics. He does not discard medicine, but he is not its servant. Bound within the same covers is another essay, infelicitously entitled "Fads of an Old Physician." "Fad" implies a whim rather than a principle, and is an unworthy name to apply to the serious convictions which illustrate the general doctrines of the 'Plea.' Taken together, these papers are the conclusions upon modes of life of an educated physician of advanced age, expressed in plain language; and, with the allowance that every intelligent reader should make in applying general rules to his particular case, they are worthy of careful attention by those who desire to maintain or to regain health under the conditions that surround the well-to-do.

Dr. W. L. Pyle's 'Manual of Personal Hygiene' (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders & Co.) is a group of collaborated essays upon the maintenance of health. They are unequal in literary and in practical value, and as a whole do not seem well adapted to instruct the laity or to inspire their guardians. They teach no heresy; but to be ill-adapted to a special purpose a paper does not require to be untrue.

The Massachusetts Historical Society's thirteenth volume (New Series) of Proceedings contains the record of meetings from March, 1899, to February, 1900, as well as several papers of interest and of permanent value. President Charles Francis Adams's belated inaugural address on "Historians and Historical Societies" we noticed at the time of its delivery. We have also made mention of Mr. Adams's other contribution on the detention of the Laird rams by the British Government in October, 1863, in correction of the late L. E. Chittenden's 'Recollections.' An early attempt at colonization in the Bahama Islands is described by Mr. John T. Hassam, and an error in the resolution of Congress admitting Missouri into the Union by Lucien Carr. An illustrated paper by Andrew McFarland Davis treats of "Occult Methods of Protecting the Currency; Sewall's Mnemonic Lines and their Interpretation." Still other contributions are "The Record of the Council of Massachusetts dur-

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ing the Presidency of Joseph Dudley," "Extracts from the Diary of Increase Mather, made by Jeremy Belknap," and some curious original documents from the apparently inexhaustible collection of the Winthrop papers. There are biographical notices of Clement Hugh Hill, by C. C. Smith; of Charles Francis Adams, by his son and namesake; and of Gen. Francis A. Walker, by F. C. Lowell, each with a portrait. A certain tenderness for Grant's memory is shown by the suppression of his name (p. 135) in connection with Mr. Hill's dismissal from the Assistant United States District-Attorneyship on account of his part in the prosecution in the District "Safe Burglary Case." The informal tributes paid to the memory of Chief-Justice Field, Professor Dunbar, John C. Ropes, and other deceased members are reported in full. Students should be made aware that the papers of the late S. P. Chase have been deposited with the Society on conditions set forth by Chase's biographer, Prof. Albert B. Hart (p. 378). A heliotype of the new and elegant building of the Society on the Fenway, in Boston, forms a frontispiece to the volume.

It seems almost reactionary, in a pictorial and "kodak" age, to find no provision made for photographs in the tourists' vade-mecum, 'Places I Have Visited,' just issued by Dodd, Mead & Co. This blank book allots four pages to items respecting date of visit, company, stay, historic or literary associations, incidents of the journey, and general impressions. Photographs might be inserted to a limited extent without warping the book, which is well adapted for its purpose otherwise.

On October 1 is to be issued in Brooklyn the *New York Latin Leaflet*, weekly, "devoted to the High-School-College Entrance Scholarship Fund." The Latin teachers who conduct it will primarily discuss "Latin or Greek topics touching the secondary field of Latin and Greek instruction." The fund above named is intended to reach the sum of at least $6,000, yielding $250 or $300 for an annual award, "on a competitive examination, to the most successful candidate from the high schools of Greater New York." The *Leaflet* may be addressed at Eastern District High School, Driggs Avenue and South Third Street, Brooklyn.

In the forthcoming October number of the *American Historical Review*, Prof. George L. Burr will have an article on the Guiana boundary, reviewing the fresh evidence upon the subject brought forward in the case and counter-case of Great Britain and Venezuela before the arbitral tribunal at Paris. In the same number a possibly unique document, of much interest in the social history of the period to which it relates, is the Diary of John Harrower, an *indented servant* (Scotsman, or rather Shetlander) serving as a schoolmaster in Virginia, 1773-1776.

The making over of New England is a curious subject of study. Externally, the civil war was the cause of the multiplication of soldiers' monuments, of all shades of badness and with rare successes; often set in such flagrant disregard of the surroundings as to ruin the harmony of a rural village. Then came the public-library movement, and if some of the new buildings jarred on the sense of fitness as did the soldiers' monuments, not infrequently an old homestead was adapted to the new use, and perhaps the majority of fresh designs have been ornamental. Methuen, Mass., has been fortunate in both these particulars, and exhibits, besides, a new departure in a costly and imposing Washington Monument, designed by Thomas Ball. Neither this structure nor the well-conceived soldiers' monument, nor the Memorial Library, appears to deface the handsome old town, which also boasts some pretentious private estates. The subject is treated with numerous illustrations in the *New Englander* for September, by Charles H. Oliphant.

Some months antecedent to their complete reporting on the total eclipse of last May, so successfully observed in our Southern States, from New Orleans to Norfolk, in Spain and Portugal, and in Algiers and Tripoli, astronomers are already preparing for another and far longer obscuration, which, if fortune and the weather favor them, will be the longest eclipse ever observed. In a recent number of *Nature*, Dr. J. J. A. Muller, President of the Royal Natural History Society of Batavia, Java, presents some preliminary statements regarding the regions to be visited by this exceptional phenomemon, which lasts for no less than six and one-half minutes on the west coast of Sumatra, on the 18th of May, 1901. Padang is the largest city within the path of totality, and a railway leads into the interior. Localities in Borneo afford stations of less value in point of length of the eclipse; and the same is true of Celebes and the Moluccas. The Society, following the initiative of an American astronomer in the eclipses of 1893 and 1896, has been collecting data referring to the conditions of the weather and cloudiness at a number of very suitable stations, and full information is offered as to the choice of localities. Observers may be sure to receive every available assistance from the local authorities and officials in the Dutch colonies.

The appreciative account of the United States educational exhibit at the Paris Exposition, from the competent pen of M. Gabriel Compayré (*Revue Pédagogique*, August 15), may, for many busy readers, prove a welcome substitute for the two volumes of monographs prepared in this country as a complement of the exhibit. The value of this publication, however, may be inferred from the fact that M. Compayré recommends its translation into French.

—'Side Lights on the Reign of Terror' (John Lane) is a translation of the memoirs of Mlle. des Écherolles, a work originally printed for family friends under the title, 'Quelques Années de ma Vie.' Lamartine thought highly of it, and one can understand his admiration, for it is the kind of book which is likely to find favor with persons of sympathy and imagination. The demand for fresh recitals of adventure during the years 1792-94 is constant, and points to an interesting condition of the public mind. Amid the wars and tumults of mediæval Italy, the poet sighed for the peaceful days of the Good Augustus. Now, in the midst of great ease and comfort, there is a disposition to recall the excitement and the ghastly tragedies of the Terror. When the issue of new books on this subject is suspended, an old volume of memoirs, which has been half or wholly forgotten, is produced from the stack of some large library, is translated, illustrated with photogravures, and reprinted with the positive certainty of a sale. The autobiography of Mlle. des Écherolles belongs to the class which we have just described. It is a tale of personal vicissitude, wholly devoid of political character or literary association, and dependent for its success on the ingredients of peril and unexpected escape. The heroine was a daughter of Étienne François des Écherolles, a distinguished officer of the monarchy, who sympathized with the early aims of the Revolution and became a commander in the National Guard. When the radicals gained control, he, like many others of Feuillant tendency, drifted toward reaction, left Paris for Lyons, and took part in the resistance of that town to the republican forces. The siege of Lyons is an episode of some moment in the history of the Revolution, and it fills the chief place among the historical events which are described by Mlle. des Écherolles. After the troops of the Convention had entered the conquered city, M. des Écherolles was condemned, and escaped only after he had survived some remarkable dangers. For instance, he was imbedded in a mattress upon which his devoted hostess lay during a visit of search officers. His daughter, owing probably to her extreme youth, was spared, but remained an object of suspicion and endured great privations from poverty. A comparatively unexciting but valuable part of the book is that which describes the routine of life in the Provinces during the Revolution. Mlle. des Écherolles finally left France and entered the service of the Duchess of Würtemberg. Her reminiscences create a pleasant impression by their simplicity of tone, while the amount of domestic detail which they furnish places them in the class of historical materials.

—In his 'Light from the East, or the Witness of the Monuments' (London: Eyre & Spottiswoode, 1899), the Rev. C. J. Ball takes occasion to discuss the Phœnician alphabet, and to present, in a somewhat new shape, the argument for its Babylonian origin. Since De Rougé propounded his theory of the Egyptian derivation of the alphabet, some half century since, it has been the generally accepted belief that it was derived either from the Egyptian hieroglyphic or the Egyptian hieratic characters. In De Rougé's time, practically the only script more ancient than the Phœnician of which scholars had knowledge, was the Egyptian. The close commercial connection of Phœnicians and Egyptians, and the borrowing of the former from the latter in the spheres of religion and art, the recognized antiquity of the Egyptian script, and the fact that out of that Egyptian script there had been developed in Egypt itself something approximating to an alphabet of twenty-five characters, led De Rougé to identify the twenty-two letters of the Phœnician alphabet with the same number of Egyptian signs. With the information then available it was natural that he should have made such an identification. Increased knowledge, the result of recent explorations and discoveries, has rendered necessary a reconsideration of De Rougé's theory. Besides the ancient Egyptian hieroglyphic and hieratic scripts, known in De Rougé's time, we now have the Babylonian cuneiform, the script of the Hittite monuments, and the recently discovered linear writings of Crete (not to speak of the Cypriote characters), known to have been in existence in regions with which the Phœnicians were in contact earlier than the earliest monuments in Phœnician characters yet discovered. The argument of probability which led De Rougé to seek for the origin of the Phœnician

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alphabet in Egypt would seem, as a result more particularly of the discoveries of the Tel el-Amarna tablets, to point at present toward Babylonia. About 1400 B. C., as those tablets show, all the kings and rulers of Palestine and Syria, including the Phœnicians, made use, in their official correspondence at least, of the Babylonian cuneiform script and the Babylonian language. After this there is a blank, so far as our present knowledge is concerned, of some three or four centuries, during which we have no written records of any sort from this region. About the tenth century B. C., we find a fully developed alphabet in use among Phœnicians, Armæans, Moabites, and, presumably, all the kindred and neighboring peoples of Palestine and Syria, as well as in Greece, and each people writing its own language in this so-called Phœnician alphabet. In view of the kinship between the languages of Phœnicia and Babylonia, in view of the close connection between Babylonia and the western coast-lands of Asia, from a very early period, and especially in view of the use of the Babylonian script and language in those regions in the fourteenth century B. C., proved by the Tel el-Amarna tablets, it would seem not unnatural to suppose that the so-called Phœnician alphabet was developed out of Babylonian rather than Egyptian characters. This Mr. Ball endeavors to prove to have been the fact.

—He is not the first who has presented such a theory; but the increased knowledge of the old Babylonian characters, resulting from recent discoveries, enables him to make a better presentation of the theory than any of his predecessors. He presents a comparative table of the rival theories, the oldest known forms of Phœnician and Aramæan characters occupying the central column, with the Babylonian originals proposed by him to the left, and the Egyptian hieroglyphic or hieratic originals, suggested by De Rougé and his successors, on the right. Allowing for the tendency in all such lists to strengthen one's argument by an involuntary modification and assimilation of signs, it must be said that the old Babylonian characters chosen by Ball resemble much more closely the oldest forms of the Phœnician letters than do the Egyptian characters proposed by De Rougé and his followers. But still more important than the resemblance of forms is the resemblance in the names of the characters. It used to be assumed that the names of the Phœnician characters, as they have been handed down to us in Hebrew, are words, and that these words were the names of the letters in use among Phœnicians and Aramæans, as well as Hebrews. From Phœnician and Aramæan sources we have no names for the letters, while the Arabic and Ethiopic make use of an entirely different set of names, based, in the case of the Arabic, on the sounds of the letters only, and quite without significance. Some few of the letter names, as we now have them in the Hebrew, are, in fact, actual words, but by far the greater portion cannot be so explained, even by the most indiscriminate appeal to Aramaic and Arabic to help out our Hebrew. De Rougé's Egyptian theory offered no explanation whatever of these curious letter names. Ball explains them by derivation from the names of the Babylonian characters. He might have made his argument still more effective by a fuller comparison of the Greek names of the letters, which, while substantially identical as to the first syllable with the Hebrew names, were never developed, like the latter, into the similitude of words. He does, however, suggest this comparison. According to his theory, the original letter names were biliteral. For instance, the original of the Greek letter name *gamma* and the Hebrew letter name *gimel* was the syllable *gam*, or *gim*, or rather *g—m*, with an indeterminate vowel; Hebrew *beth*, Greek *beta*, is derived from the Babylonian *bat* or *bit*; *daleth* or *delta* from *da* or *dal*, etc. On the negative side Ball's table and his argument together are almost, if not quite, convincing against the Egyptian theory; on the positive side he certainly presents a very plausible case for the Babylonian origin of the alphabet. It must be remembered, however, that the Hittite inscriptions have not yet been satisfactorily deciphered, and that we do not know either the contents of those inscriptions or the affinities of the script in which they are written, while the recent discovery in Crete of tablets written in linear characters not related, apparently, to Babylonian cuneiform, Egyptian hieroglyphics, or Hittite, and antedating the earliest known inscriptions in the Phœnician alphabet, some account of which discovery appeared in the *Nation* of August 16, suggests new possibilities, and warns us to be cautious in our theories, in view of the extent of our present ignorance.

—Twenty years ago an organized attempt was made to grapple with the problem of rural education in France. A commission of inquiry was appointed by the Government, and, as one result of its report, chairs of agriculture were established in every Department for the purpose of training teachers—not to become agricultural experts, but to fit them for the duties of a village school by giving them practical instruction in agriculture and particularly horticulture. Six years after this, agricultural instruction was made obligatory in all primary schools. It is too soon to look for definite results from the new system, especially considering the two great obstacles of the ignorance and parsimony of the school boards, and the early age (eleven) at which all but a few children leave school. Many teachers, however, are doing excellent work, as is shown by a correspondent of the London *Times*. In the village of Olivet, for instance, in a school of 140 children, in addition to the theoretical lessons which all receive, the forty elder boys are taught, after school hours, budding, grafting, pruning, planting, etc. "All the trees and vines grafted by the pupils are their own property, and they may take them to their homes." Five times in the season visits are made to nurseries or farms, the walk being made the occasion for collecting plants and insects, or for a lesson in land-surveying. "Each child has a collection of dried plants, which are studied from various points of view and their beneficial or harmful properties explained. In the school museum to which the children contribute, there are 150 varieties of insects, classified either according to their good qualities or according to the injury they do to the vine, cereals, vegetables, fruit trees, forest trees, forage plants, and rose trees and flowers." Perhaps the most practical benefit arises from the fact that "almost every school has a good garden." These gardens, although the exclusive property of the teachers, are frequently used for demonstrations, and sometimes are cultivated by the children. It not infrequently happens that the school garden is the best in the village, thus demonstrating to the farmer, who knows nothing of science or theory, the value of intelligence in cultivating the ground. Great encouragement is given to the teachers of these rural schools by the prizes of money, medals, and books offered every year by the Government and the various agricultural societies.

—Negro civilization seems to have reached its highest stage at the present time among the Hausas of Nigeria, judging from the description by an English missionary of their principal town, Kano. A city of some 100,000 inhabitants, it lies foursquare, and is twelve or fourteen miles in circumference. A wall forty feet high and a moat eight feet broad surround it, the wall being enormously thick at the base, but tapering to a foot at the top. In it are thirteen gates, closed, at sunset, with massive wooden doors, well covered with strips of iron, against which are propped two huge beams, as there is neither lock nor key in Kano. Within the walls not a house was visible at first, nothing but field upon field of cultivated land upon which the people rely for food in the event of protracted siege. Through these the traveller passed for (apparently) two miles, when he came to broad thoroughfares lined with houses "splendidly made, although mud is the only material used there for building purposes," as timber is exceedingly scarce. These streets consist of two wide, level pathways with a vast hollow stretching between them from which the mud for building has been excavated. These hollows are generally cultivated; and as the houses stand in courtyards full of shade trees, the town has the appearance of a beautiful garden, the red mud standing out in striking contrast against the green foliage. Almost anything can be bought in the great market—"sugar, cotton cloth, leather, needles, crockery, tinware, dyes, lime, charcoal, meat, slaves, camels, horses, food of every variety, including tomatoes, wheat (which is grown near Kano), tamed gazelles, and hyenas, wild cats, birds —anything and everything." The money of the country is still the cowry shell, but the Maria Theresa dollar is taken, while gold and silver coins are eagerly bought to be worked up into ornaments. The King's palace was a "splendid specimen of mud architecture," and the audience-chamber a handsome room thirty feet square. The King was seated on a rich red dais, surrounded by his courtiers in compact rows, attired in magnificent costumes of green, red, and other hues. He proved to be determinedly opposed to the establishment of an English mission in his city, though with tactful treatment this antagonism to European civilization may eventually be overcome.

DRYDEN AS CRITIC.

Essays of John Dryden. Selected and edited by W. P. Ker, M.A., Fellow of All Souls' College, Hon. LL.D., Glasgow; Professor of English Literature in University College, London. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1900. 2 vols., pp. lxxviii, 324, 323.

Dryden's Dramatic Theory and Practice. By Margaret Sherwood. Yale University Dissertation. 1898. Pp. 103.

Just two hundred years have passed since

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the death of John Dryden, and now, for the first time, we have a critical edition of his literary essays, the only portion of his prose works that is of permanent interest. Mr. Ker has collected in two neat volumes those hastily written papers of which Swift said maliciously—

> "Read all the Prefaces of Dryden,
> For these our critics much confide in,
> Though merely writ at first for filling,
> To raise the volume's price a shilling"—

but in which later authors have been content to see the beginnings of modern English criticism.

In his Introduction, Mr. Ker aims to explain what Dryden's quality as a critic really was. To do so he sketches for us the position of European criticism at the time Dryden began to write, touching upon such points as the Quarrel of the Ancients and Moderns, the Three Unities, and the various meanings of the word Nature in pseudo-classic writers. These are subjects continually recurring in Dryden's essays, which cannot be understood without some explanation of them. Mr. Ker's treatment is admirable—free at once from pedantic exaggeration and from misguided contempt for by-gone views. On the other hand, besides giving due weight to Dryden's marvellous prose style, he emphasizes the fact that his real greatness as a critic is quite independent of academic discussions.

"The separate, positive sentences of Dryden," Mr. Ker tells us (p. xv), "are of small account in his work as critic. His virtue is that, in a time when literature was pestered and cramped with formulas, he found it impossible to write otherwise than freely. He is skeptical, tentative, disengaged, where most of his contemporaries, and most of his successors for a hundred years, are pledged to certain dogmas and principles."

And again, he says of Dryden's estimate of Shakspere (p. xxii):

"The isolation of his point of view, the simplicity of his statement (one mortal man and good writer talking happily about another), the enthusiastic tone, and at the same time the want of reverence, all bring out the individual genius of Dryden as a critic, the directness and truth of his answer when he is appealed to by good poetry. No critic has ever given so convincingly an account of his own poetical likings with so little display, so little expense of rhetoric."

Perhaps Mr. Ker does not sufficiently emphasize Dryden's weakness when dealing with abstract questions, on which his reasoning is usually borrowed from some recently published French book. Here Mr. Ker's Introduction may be supplemented by Miss Sherwood's dissertation. Miss Sherwood, taking Dryden's dicta on dramatic theory as they stand, shows with pitiless logic their hopeless shallowness and inconsistency. (We might think these too obvious for proof, had not others written of Dryden in a tone more applicable to Herbert Spencer or Schopenhauer.) Dryden, in her view, which can hardly be contradicted, for ever gnaws the husk of æsthetic theory without reaching the kernel. Then, subjecting his dramas to a critical analysis such as they have never before received, she shows in them, equally convincingly, the same lack of depth and insight. Miss Sherwood herself, moreover, writes a vigorous, imaginative style rarely found in university dissertations. But, in her flow of indignation at Dryden's weaknesses, she almost passes over his real merits, so finely pointed out by Mr. Ker. At times she seems to be describing a scribbler and a bungler rather than one of the few great masters of English literature, in criticism as in poetry.

Both Mr. Ker and Miss Sherwood discuss Dryden's critical work as a whole. They are not unmindful of changes in his opinions and yet do not try to follow them in detail or to explain their causes. This is especially strange in Mr. Ker's case, since he has carefully arranged the essays in chronological order. Dryden's critical writings really show a progress towards the classical point of view, thus serving as a valuable index to the alteration of spirit that was taking place in English literature. One example must suffice. In the 'Essay of Dramatic Poesy' (published in 1668, but written, according to its author, in 1665), Dryden tells us (Ker i, 70): "I . . . cannot but conclude, to the honour of our nation, that we have invented, increased and perfected a more pleasant way of writing for the stage than was ever known to the ancients or moderns of any nation, which is tragi-comedy." Fourteen years later, in his preface to "Troilus and Cressida" (1679), he denounces tragi-comedy in no sparing terms (i, 208). After this, though his practice is wavering, and though he apologizes for tragi-comedy as adapted to the taste of the English public, he never attempts to defend it on general grounds. The reason is not hard to see. Writing in 1665, the apprentice Dryden was influenced principally by Elizabethan models, and praise of tragi-comedy inevitably followed. But before 1679 the Restoration drama had reached a vigorous development, in which tragedy and comedy had been sharply distinguished from each other. A combination of the over-strained "heroic" tragedy with either the artificial comedy of manners or the low comedy of intrigue was really unnatural; and Dryden, having these types of drama in mind, rightly condemned it. A comparison of his own "All for Love" and "Don Sebastian" will show the truth of his instinct.

In discussing the 'Essay of Dramatic Poesy,' Dryden's most ambitious, and in many ways his most important piece of criticism, Mr. Ker, like preceding editors, repeats without comment Malone's identification of the Crites of the Essay with Sir Robert Howard. Malone, editing Dryden's prose works in 1800, at first thought that Crites represented Lord Roscommon; then, finding that the arguments used by Crites against rhyme were borrowed from Sir Robert Howard's Preface to his Plays, he forthwith identified him with that nobleman. Yet Crites's arguments are distinctly said not to be his own, but quoted from another (Ker, i, 91, 94). Further, Sir Robert Howard, in his Preface, is a declared champion of the moderns, while Crites defends the cause of the ancients. We even find—and Scott calls attention to the fact without drawing the inevitable conclusion—an argument of Howard's quoted against the Crites of the Essay. Whether Crites was intended to represent Roscommon must remain doubtful; he certainly cannot be identified with Howard.

The separate publication of Dryden's Essays unfortunately obscures their connection with his poems and dramas. Dryden never wrote a criticism without having his own axe to grind. Even in the 'Essay of Dramatic Poesy,' the one apparent exception, the defence of rhyme in the drama and of tumult on the stage is really an apology for the "heroic plays" just then coming into fashion. Mr. Ker, like preceding editors, omits to point out this fact.

In his notes Mr. Ker judiciously contents himself, for the most part, with indicating the sources of Dryden's quotations and explaining literary and political allusions. Here his scholarly conscientiousness offers a refreshing contrast to the perfunctory course of his predecessors. This is shown especially in his treatment of Dryden's relations with obscure Italian and French writers. We might, however, desire fuller quotations from the French critics whom Dryden used as his main authorities, particularly when, as with Rapin and Segrais, their works are not easily accessible. Comparison of Dryden with his sources is a peculiarly interesting study. Fuller citations in the notes would enable the reader to see how Dryden sometimes inserted literal translations into his own work, sometimes misunderstood his authority, and, above all, how he always shrank from vigorous, independent thought.

Aside from this perhaps undue compression of material, Mr. Ker has occasionally missed an opportunity for a really helpful note. Thus, in the 'Essay on Satire' (ii, 89) Dryden, after quoting from the 'Annals' of Tacitus, proceeds to give a parallel passage from "Aurelius," apparently thinking that he is citing Aurelius Victor. Really, Dryden had used the Delphin edition of Tacitus, and innocently reproduced a note signed "Aurelius," not observing that the method of printing showed it to be an extract from an old commentator. The real "Aurelius" was Louis d'Orléans, whose 'Novae Cogitationes in Libr. Annalium C. Cornelii Taciti,' was published at Paris in 1622. Nothing could better illustrate Dryden's slipshod methods of work.

In the 'Essay of Dramatic Poesy' Dryden quotes from "Aristotle" a long passage on the formal division of tragedy into protasis, epitasis, katastasis, and catastrophe (i, 44). Mr. Ker points out for the first time that the real source is not Aristotle, but Scaliger's 'Poetics.' But he does not note that an interesting side-light is here thrown upon Dryden's methods. The passage is too accurately reproduced for us to think it quoted from Dryden's helter-skelter memory; and yet even Dryden, had he taken it directly from Scaliger, would hardly have ascribed it to Aristotle. We have here a trace of the famous commonplace book ridiculed in the "Rehearsal." Dryden had copied the passage without indicating the author; then, when he came to use it, guessed from the subject-matter that it must be from the source of all poetic wisdom.

Mr. Ker has carefully revised his text by comparison with the original copies. For the 'Essay of Dramatic Poesy' he has wisely followed the first edition, adding the variants of the other editions in footnotes. This gives a better idea of the growth of Dryden's style than the usual practice of choosing as the standard the author's revision of his work, sixteen years after its first appearance. Some of Dryden's shorter papers, notably his 'Heads of an Answer to Rymer,' contain valuable critical dicta, and might have been included in Mr. Ker's edition without unduly swelling its volume.

We now possess, thanks to Mr. Christie and Mr. Ker, scholarly, if not irreproachable, editions of Dryden's poems and of his chief prose writings. His dramas, which, aside from their historical importance, contain

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much of his best poetry, have yet to be made generally accessible. But a greater need than this remains to be supplied. Despite the seamy side of his character, which is only too obvious, Dryden had a personality full of grace and charm, which reveals itself to sympathetic readers of his works, and for which illustration might be found in contemporary literature. But he has been unfortunate in his biographers. Even Johnson and Scott, of whom most might have been expected, dwell too exclusively on the literary and political aspects of his career. Hence Dryden, who should be as well loved as Dr. Johnson or Charles Lamb—to choose widely different illustrations—is known to the "average man" only as a political and religious turn-coat, who wrote satires on forgotten men and dead issues. Some true lover may yet produce an imaginative portrait of Dryden such as Carlyle has given us of Burns, showing him as the "high and remarkable man" he really was.

"AS SHE IS WROTE."

Prehistoric America. III.: The Cliff-Dwellers and Pueblos. By Rev. Stephen D. Peet, Ph.D. Chicago.

A serious-faced, soberly bound, ponderable volume of over 400 pages; in the name and with the air of authority; with 170-odd illustrations (*tales cuales*), and all to a text which is certainly not the driest nor the most hackneyed within our reach, must arouse certain anticipations. Within the scope of its more than three-and-a-half centuries of documentary history, its millennium, perhaps (and perhaps more), of romantic legend, both set off by a frame of landscapes nowhere surpassed (if anywhere paralleled) for grandeur and for strangeness, the arid Southwest is still some one's chance. The real students who have written of it have been mostly non-"popular"; the (Populist, one had almost said) writers who have taken it for a setting have been, almost without exception, unscientific, to put it mildly. A fairly adequate, broad telling—with expert knowledge, but sympathetically and in the human colors—of what is really learned and proved of the plot and *dramatis personæ* of this strange old tragedy of Man against the Desert, would have general and generous welcome. In a smaller but still respectable circle, a competent synoptic review of this *cause célèbre*, with some selection as between witnesses and mere gossips, would be no less gratefully received.

With what precise intention Dr. Peet, editor of the *American Antiquarian*, has put forth his portly octavo, whose title we give above, is not easy to surmise. Not, we may presume, for "popular" light reading; nor, it is to be hoped, as a digest of the many unassorted books and articles of extracts and abstracts from which it is so largely made up; for it does not convey a sense of eupepsia. We somewhat expect that a "scientific" book shall at least preserve the outward graces of the average printing-office. If it bristle with misprints, lay as well as technical; with misspelling of common as well as esoteric words; with wrong fonts, inverted letters, an utter absence of plan in punctuation, pagination, and indexing, and all the other earmarks of the slovenly and unremedied compositor, we are apt in such case to fear for the science thus dressed. "Bristle" is perhaps not an extreme word here. After a rather careful reading, the reviewer finds that, in the 408 pages of this volume, there are 64 which he has not pencilled for errors this side of hypercriticism, and without marking at all for accents or for punctuation of an extraordinary description. The remaining pages carry of pencilled corrections (merely proofreader's corrections) from one apiece upward. P. 28 has 41; among them 32 egregious cases of "wf." in three fonts. P. 106 has more than twice as many. If these are the worst cases, it is in degree, not in kind.

It is hardly fair—and decidedly not safe—to leave too much to a stereotype proofreader. He cannot reasonably be expected to have "given years of close study" (*vide* preface) to this field; and in unfamiliar words we all have a genius for blundering. On a single page (66) fourteen proper names are misspelled, and throughout the book the very authorities of whose works it is compounded venture into it at their proper peril of disfigurement. Alvar Nuñez Cabeza de Vaca is invariably "Cabeca"; and once made two persons and with the extra misspelling of "Nunez." The loss of the cedilla here makes as much difference as there is between "face" and "fake." The curbstone myth of his "discovery" of New Mexico, long ago absolutely exploded by Bandelier, is here accepted without a hint of question. Fray Marcos de Niza, who did discover New Mexico, figures here as "Marco de Nica," "Marcos de Nica," and "Marco de Nueva." On p. 310 he is brought into New Mexico in "1339." Castañeda, the dyspeptic chronicler of Coronado's marches, is here steadfastly "Castaneda"—save once, when he becomes "Castanedo." Jaramillo masquerades as "Jerramillo," and Oñate never finds his "y." "Gaspár Castaño de Sosa is "Gasper [and no wonder!] Castano de Losa." Chamuscado is here "Chomuscado"; Chamita, the first European inland settlement north of Mexico, is "Chomito." Eusebius Kuehne (Kino), the apostle of Arizona, is himself converted—to "Father Rino." And that *varon apostólico* under whose invocation half the Americas were "reduced" to God, suffers a still more startling change to (presumably "virgin and martyr") "St. Frances."

Zuñi is hundreds of times (almost invariably) rendered "Zuni"—or, for occasional variety, "Znni"; and piñon is "pinon" except when "pinôn." Plain *n* for "ñ" is the omission not of an accent but of a letter—the valid letter *y*. It is precisely like writing "Kenon Cox" or "Bunan's 'Pilgrim's Progress.'" Cañon is occasionally so printed here; but far oftener "canyon" and too often "canon"—sometimes on the same page. "Santa Domingo" and "San Domingo" are here commoner than the correct Santo. The "Red House" of Coronado is indifferently "Chichilticale," "Chichilticalli," and "Chilticali." "Nicaraugua," "Zacetacas," "Alberquerque," "Neutria" (Nutria); "Jamez," "San-Maguel," "Ojo Calcinte" (Caliente), "Portrero de las Vecas" (Potrero de las Vacas)—"Nuestca Senora" (Nuestra Señora)—these are only fair examples among many. The famous Thunder Mountain of Zuñi is here impartially "Ta-al-ya-la-na," "Taaiya-lana," "Toyalone," "Ta-a-ya-al-na," "To-yo-a-la-na," and "Toyolaana."

Nor do the modern writers and explorers (of quotation or misquotation from whom the book is mostly filled) any better escape this typographical St. Bartholomew's. "Brandelier," "Scoollcraft," "W. [W.] H. Davis," "Albert" (Lieut. J. W. Abert), "Emery" (Lieut.-Col. W. H. Emory, who is also made "W. A."), "Dr. Means" (Dr. Mearns)—these are the mildlier mutilated. The Hemenway Southwestern Expedition is as often "Hemmingway" or "Hemingway." Mindeleff is "Mindeliff," "Mendeliff," or even "Mindcliff," and a Mr. Bickford is, as the wind serves, "L. F." or "J. T." or "F. F." or "F. T." Another "authority" is spelled four ways; and George Parker Winship becomes "Prof. Winthrop." In fine, and by count, a majority of Dr. Peet's enablers, ancient and modern, are wounded in their names; some of them, at least, as seriously in their dignity by misquotation of their words.

These do not seem the most worthy settings for science of any water; but it is questionable if this gem should complain. "Chicken" Itza might be "in Guatemala" (instead of in Yucatan), but Chichen Itza is not—though this volume puts them both there (*e. g.*, p. 348 and facing p. 112). On the latter page we have "Casa Grande in Chihuahua," and on p. 347 precisely the same venerable cut illustrating "Casas Grandes in Sonora." Both are wrong. Casa Grande is in Arizona; Casas Grandes in Chihuahua. For further grace we have, *passim*, "Casa Grandes," "Casa Grand," "Cassas Grandes." The San Juan River is shifted 300 miles into "Northern Mexico" (116).

If we take Fray Marcos, in Arizona, 158 years before the mainland of America was discovered, as a mere slip, and the "Pueblo Rebellion in 1780" (p. 246) as another casual lapse of a century, what are we to say when we find Coronado's famous march (1540) put "in 1536" (p. 114)? And what, when we read (210, *n.*), "The story of Coronado's march was told by four persons who *took part in it;* Mendoza [the Viceroy!], Jerramillo, and an anonymous writer, and Gastanedo"? That "Coronado seems to have passed by Moqui on his [first] way to Zuni" (p. 61); that "Culiacan or Sonora was a province" (47); that "the village of Laguna" was described "by Castaneda in 1540" (p. 170; it was founded *circa* 1690 on a virgin site); that "the villages on the Rio Grande . . . are called by the general name of Gran Quivira"—just below, "Quivria"; that (p. 112) the Cliff Dwellers preceded the Pueblos, and that (189) the Pueblos preceded the Cliff Dwellers? *Et id genus omne.*

The illustrations, borrowed *Tros, Tyriusve* from old reports, railroad folders, and some modern works, but none (so far as noted) new, are in keeping. The "Typical Great House at Zuni" (p. 222) is neither Great House nor Zuñi, but the parvenu pueblo of Laguna, with the railroad in the foreground. "The [Moqui] Snake Dance" (p. 339) is neither snake dance nor Moqui, but the "corn dance" at Santo Domingo—as remote in character as in geography. The "Navajo Priest" (392) is not a Navajo but a Moqui. Many cuts are printed twice (*e. g.*, face 112, 346, 347, 348; face 169-289; 103-141; face 169, face 288)—and generally with different titles. The same crude block does duty (p. 346) for "Ruined Pueblo on the Mac Elmo," and (face 112) "Ruined Village on the San Juan."

After thus much, which is little, it is perhaps almost gratuitous to add that the volume is a solemn indigestion of many and undiscriminated writings. The hodge-

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podge of "authorities" is remindful of the wit who, passing a number of men, gave "Good morning, gentlemen"; and, getting but scattered response, added: "Good morning, also, Those Who Are Not." One would be doubly relieved to find, after this record of benevolent assimilations, a new idea authenticated, or an old one "better said." If the inventor of that unscientific but pointed phrase "arm-chair science" ever meant anything, this is probably "just the sort of thing" he meant.

China and the Present Crisis. With Notes on a Visit to Japan and Korea. By Joseph Walton, M.P. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co. 1900. Pp. xii+320. Map.

The Crisis in China. By George B. Smyth; Rev. Gilbert Reid; Charles Johnston; John Barrett; Robert E. Lewis; Archibald R. Colquhoun; M. Mikhailoff; Rear-Admiral Lord Charles Beresford; His Excellency Wu Ting Fang; Demetrius C. Boulger; General James H. Wilson; the Rt. Hon. Sir Charles W. Dilke. Reprinted by permission from the *North American Review.* Harper & Brothers. 1900. Pp. vi+272. Maps and illustrations.

The first of these books is a plain statement of facts; the second is a bundle of theories. Mr. Walton is a globe-trotting M. P. of a good type. His interests are those of the business man; trade and markets, communications and tariffs, he watches, understands, and tells of. These furnish his starting-point, and the things he saw on his travels are of weight to him as they affect these. About his book there is a solid materialism and hard-headed common sense characteristic of the North of England man. It has no fine writing, no attempts at picturesque description. *La haute politique* means opening or closing of markets; national sentiment means protection for the trader; the magnificent gorges and rapids on the Yangtse-kiang mean that the patrolling gun-boats must have so many knots of speed. Out of his own *métier* Mr. Walton's remarks on what he saw are often trivial. Yet his details are never childish, as is so often the case when the gallant traveller gives us his journal day by day, and we can forgive them here because of the absolute reality which they afford to the picture.

To Mr. Walton's combined importance as a member of Parliament of weight and a representative of large business interests, all circles in the further East were open. He interviewed everybody and saw everything. Prince Ching, Li Hung Chang, the Marquis Ito, Count Okuma, Viceroys Liu Kun Yi and Chung Chi Tung fell before him. The representatives of the great commercial houses made things smooth for him, and high officials of all nationalities showed him round. His route, too, carried him over the most important ground. After Japan and Korea came the Gulf of Pechili and the country round it—Pekin to Kiau-Chau. Then Shanghai and up the Yangtse-kiang to Chung-Kiung, back and round the coast to Hong Kong and Canton; home by French Indo-China, Siam, Singapore, and across India. One chapter is a reprint from Hansard of the author's speech in the House of Commons on March 30, on British interests in China, commercial and political. This is a vigorous indictment, based on very full knowledge of the slack and drifting policy of the Salisbury Cabinet. The American Government, on the other hand, is congratulated warmly on the success of its "open door" movement. The chapter which follows deals with the present crisis, and the two together only go to show more clearly the lamentable and fatal ignorance which existed as to what was the real situation in China. That is now an old story, and there is little use in going back upon it, except as a renewed warning how closely official eyes may be shut, and how unreadable to the Occidental is the Oriental mind.

After the forebodings of Mr. Colquhoun, it is heartening to find how completely Mr. Walton approves and upholds the American policy. If he fairly represents the views of the great English houses in the China trade, then the commercial pressure on Lord Salisbury to keep in line with this country and to pursue a firm policy of China for the Chinese should be overwhelming. Yet, as to the possibility of all this, a grain of doubt must enter. Mr. Walton travels through the country and sees not a sign of anti-foreign feeling. How much there was we now know, and we cannot help remembering how close were the terms of intimacy on which he was with high Chinese officials all along his route. In China, as in Russia, things can be kept out of sight. Mr. Colquhoun travels over very nearly the same ground and sees the country on the verge of anarchy. There can be little doubt which of the two saw more clearly. Apart from this, Mr. Walton's insight and solid sense cannot be too highly praised.

On the second book there is little to be said. The value and interest of its ten papers were largely of the moment of their publication. Each calls now for an effort of historical imagination to reconstruct that moment; a great deal has happened in a very short time. It is to be feared that those by foreign writers will only give occasion to the cynical American to murmur to himself, "Codlin's your friend, not Short."

Notes on the Bacon-Shakespeare Question. By Charles Allen. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1900.

What Mr. Allen has done to shed light on the Bacon-Shakspere question, is summed up in his preface. In the first place, he takes up the argument in favor of the Baconian authorship derived from the supposed legal erudition exhibited in the plays, and shows that this legal knowledge was not merely not extraordinary, but not such as to imply that the author was educated as a lawyer, or even as a lawyer's clerk. To pass over other minor points, the author also fortifies, by a very effective analysis, what may be called the argument from impossibility, showing that Bacon never had any recognition as a poet, and lacked the poetical faculty (at any rate, so far as expression in dramatic verse goes), while Shakspere was recognized and known to be a dramatist and poet by his contemporaries. Of course, the usual reply to this is, "Ah! but Shakspere was written by Bacon," the Baconians apparently mistaking the allegation which they have to sustain for proof. But the most striking and valuable contribution of the author to the extraordinary controversy is the overwhelming array of evidence by which he demolishes the legal argument. For instance, much has been made of the supposed indications in the gravedigger's scene in "Hamlet" that Shakspere was familiar with the case of Hales vs. Petit, published in Plowden's Reports in 1578. Mr. Allen shows, first, that Plowden's Reports were also mentioned by Jonson, who was no lawyer; second, that the reasoning in Hales vs. Petit, supposed to be ridiculed in "Hamlet," is not closely followed in the play; third, that even if one is supposed to be drawn from the other, Shakspere might have picked up all that he knew of the case in conversation, as it was a *cause célèbre* of the period.

As to the constant employment of legal terms in the plays, other writers of the same age employed them in the same familiar way, probably because the terms were then household words, though they have since passed out of common use. This was the case, for instance, with *præmunire*, a term used familiarly by Jonson, Massinger, Middleton, and Heywood; while the passage from Henry VIII., beginning, "Lord Cardinal, the King's further pleasure is ——," which, besides bringing in *præmunire*, has throughout a decidedly legal complexion, was very little more than a paraphrase of Holinshed. The notes on "legal terms" made by Mr. Allen show conclusively that everybody at this time was familiar with legal phraseology, to an extent now quite surprising. When *Pettifog* says, "The defendant was arrested first by *latitat*, in an action of trespass," *Compass* replies, "And a lawyer told me it should have been an action on the case"; but this has never been supposed to prove that Webster's "Cure for a Cuckold" was written by Bacon. In the same way we find, to mention half-a-dozen out of a hundred instances, *alluvion* and *assumpsit* in Jonson; *audita querela* in Middleton; *capias* in Beaumont and Fletcher; *disseised* in Donne; *eloign* in Chapman; *garnishes* in Dekker; *livery of seisin* in Webster; *mittimus* in Massinger.

But besides all this, Shakspere is, as Mr. Allen shows in another chapter, full of bad law and untechnical use of legal terms. Even Portia's rules of law, he thinks, will not bear examination. First, a bond, with a homicide for a penalty, would probably not even at that time have been valid; but, it valid it could have been no violation of the condition to cut off *less* than a pound, while "the incidental flowing of blood could not make Shylock's act unlawful, since the cutting could not be done without it." We are not so sure of this, because primitive law is full of surprises of all kinds, especially with regard to promises and bonds; but when Shakspere uses "dower" for "dowry," he falls into a mistake which would have set Lord Bacon's teeth on edge. Many other instances are given which seem to bear out the author's conclusion that Shakspere is not uniformly accurate or technically correct in his legal doctrines and allusions, and in his use of legal terms; and, in short, that "no strong argument against the theory of Shaksperian authorship can be derived from the display of legal learning in the plays and poems."

Art in Needlework; A Book about Embroidery. By Lewis F. Day and Mary Buckle. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

This work will be found of great practical use to those who devote time and skill to embroidery. Besides innumerable illustra-

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tions of fine examples of ancient embroideries of different kinds, Mr. Day has been at the pains of reproducing a series of samplers with groups of stitches having some affinity. These are clearly photographed, front and back, on either side of the same leaf, and are intended for the student with needle and thread in hand so that she can turn the sampler and consult the inside for further guidance. The text contains diagrams of each stitch mentioned, with very lucid directions. We are indebted for these to Miss Buckle's collaboration and also to Mr. Day's daughter. With this book before her, any fairly intelligent needlewoman would have all that can without practical demonstration be taught of embroidery; she would also learn to avoid many pitfalls in the aims of embroidery as an art.

Mr. Day, as a professional and competent designer, attaches much importance to the cultivation of the taste of the embroidress in the choice of good designs; not that he considers it desirable for her to originate her own patterns, unless she has a real faculty for invention, which is a rare gift, but in order to enable her to modify or adapt any design she is working to the purpose for which it is destined. He recommends the study of good work, old work especially, among which some particular kind will appeal to her as most desirable. This she is to seek to understand and emulate without slavish imitation or loss of individuality. We quote some excellent advice which savors of Ruskin:

"Measure yourself with the best, not with the common run of work; and if that should put you out of conceit with your own work, no great harm is done; sooner or later you have got to come to a modest opinion of yourself, if ever you are to do even moderate things. But the 'best' above referred to does not mean the most masterly. The best of a simple kind is not calculated to discourage any one—rather, it looks as if it must be easy to do that; and in trying to do it you learn how much goes to the doing it. Good design need not be of any importance or pretensions. It may be quite simple, if only it is right; if the lines are true, the color harmonious; if it is adapted to its place, to its use and purpose, to execution not only with the needle, but in the particular kind of needlework to be employed."

The present writer also insists on the necessity of the worker and designer being in sympathy, and considers it a test of a practical designer that he should adapt himself to the materials and conditions under which the work is to be carried out. Mr. Day points out the mistake which is so often made in too closely following nature in the form of flowers and plants in embroidery: to work a flower as though it were painted with a brush is not good design although quite easily accomplished. Another form of needlework he considers mistaken is the effort to introduce the human figure into an embroidered picture, although we have some very beautiful examples of this kind among fourteenth and fifteenth-century work. There is a less happy modern example of an appliqué panel, with stitching and couching, among the illustrations of this book by Miss Keightley. Mr. Day considers ornament the thing best worth doing, and deprecates the excellent needle-work of the art schools of our time having been so often wasted on inappropriate designs—sometimes good enough in themselves, but not fitted for the materials in which they were carried out. He deems it indispensable that work should be beautiful in design and color and execution; that the worker should express her own individuality in it; that the materials used should be appropriate and the best of their kind. He very justly objects to good work being wasted on poor stuffs. The reader can obtain full information in this book on all subjects connected with the materials to be used and the implements required; she will also feel convinced that embroidery is an art to be approached seriously, and to be practised with understanding and definite purpose.

Bordeaux and its Wines, Classed by Order of Merit. Third English (from the seventh French) edition. By Édouard Feret. Bordeaux: Feret et Fils. 1899. French 12mo (English 8vo), pp. 846.

Admirable is the talent for condensation without loss of accuracy or of detail displayed in the last edition of this standard work, commonly known as Cocks's 'Bordeaux et ses Vins classés par ordre de mérite.' A humanly complete handbook and directory of the wines of Bordeaux has been brought under one cover, although sixty pages go to the indices and two hundred are covered by the scattered illustrations. The text occupies less than six hundred pages; and though a large proportion of it is in print so fine as to give a thousand words to the page, yet it contains less than the matter of Humboldt's 'Cosmos,' which the true connoisseur will consider a beggarly allowance enough, considering the relative importance of the two subjects. But where lack of space has debarred M. Feret from entering into full details, he has not failed to refer the reader to whatever authority is most accurate and copious upon the special point of Girondine enology in question. Perhaps fifty titles are so cited, so that this work becomes a trusty guide to all that can be learned from books concerning its subject; and book learning is an essential part, albeit a small one, of this science, as of every other.

The whole area of the department of the Gironde is nearly four thousand square miles, or twice that of the State of Delaware. But a fifth of it is water, and nearly half waste *landes*, and, in short, only 625 square miles, we are told, are more or less devoted to the culture of the vine, not equalling the surface of such a county as Van Rensselaer, Greene, or even Madison, in the State of New York. The population of the whole department is 800,000, so that its density is about that of the population of New Jersey. These 625 square miles may be said to embrace six different wine countries. Beginning with the worst, there is, in the first place, the district known as *Entre-deux-mers*, lying between the Garonne and the Dordogne, but restricted to parts well away from both rivers, and also not extending down below Créon. Its wine is chiefly used for distillation. Secondly, there is the alluvial soil on the borders of the Garonne and Gironde, the Dordogne, and the Isle, hardly reaching back a mile. It is known as the *palus*, and the use of it for the growth of wine is post-phylloxerine. Thirdly, there are the parts called the *côtes*, embracing everything on the right of the Garonne and Gironde not included in the *palus* or *Entre-deux-mers*, together with the Bazadais, which, on the left bank of the Garonne, from its entrance into the department some dozen miles down to Langon, extends eight or nine miles back from the *palus*. The *côtes* wines are of various character and quality. Quite the best of them are those of St. Émilion, light but *reconfortant*, with a peculiar bouquet and slightly bitter taste, rejoicing in the title of the Burgundy of the Gironde, while the comparatively modest price is prohibitory. The remaining three wine-countries of the department are situated like the Bazadais, that is, on the left bank of the Garonne or Gironde, and reaching six or eight miles back from the *palus*. Next below the Bazadais is, fourthly, the *pays de Sauternes*, a district about seven miles square, whose white wines are made with extraordinary pains, the vintage lasting two months, and the grapes being selected, in some instances, one by one. Fifthly, next below the *pays de Sauternes*, for twelve miles down, as far as Bordeaux, comes the gravelly, channelly bottom (one hesitates to say soil) denominated the *graves*, where the delicious white wines of that generic name used to be grown. But those vines having been totally destroyed by phylloxera, at present more red wine than white is produced. Some of it is of the very finest quality; for New Yorkers' favorite claret, (judging by the price they have run it up to), the famous Château Haut-Brion, is a *vin des graves*. This château stands only about a mile outside of Bordeaux; and the traveller who arrives at that town in order to study its wines, is forcibly impressed with those of the *graves*, since the neighboring communes produce some very fine *crus*, while near to Bordeaux, those of Médoc, the sixth and most famous of the Gironde wine countries, are quite inferior. Most of the châteaux which produce the incomparable wines of Médoc that are the chief glory of the Gironde—of France, a true lover of them would have us say—stand upon interminable straight gravelly ridges, their vineyards growing close about them lest the precious soil should be wasted, and are remarkably business-like places to be called châteaux. There is, however, along the Gironde, a stretch of nine miles, from the Châteaux-Beychevelle to St. Estèphe, where there is hardly any *palus;* and here the finest vineyards extend to the water, as the name Beychevelle, or "lower the sail," may remind us. This stretch is bisected by the village of Pauillac, in whose commune some of the very greatest wines are produced, and some of the estates are magnificent. The Château-Pignon, in Hector Malot's 'Un Mariage sous le Second Empire,' was probably drawn from the Château-Pichon-Longueville, which stands on one side of the mouth of the Juillac brook with the Château-Latour on the other.

The first hundred pages of the present volume give all general information about wine-making in the Gironde, beginning with the different soils and sub-soils and their suitabilities for the vine, going on to the different varieties of vine employed to make Bordeaux wines, the chief diseases and parasites of the plants, vying in multitude with those of the horse, as *coulure, attelabe,* the *écrivain,* the *procris,* the *pyrale,* the *cuchlore,* the *ver-blanc,* the *apate,* the *puce de la vigne, loches,* snails, *érinose, grillage,* mildew, the *oïdium,* the *phylloxéra, anthracnose, pourridié;* rot, brown, white, and black, *cochylis,* etc.; the whole process of cultivation, planting by five systems, grafting, the arrangement of the vineyard, pruning, etc., special methods of the Médoc, estimates in detail for a su-

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perior bourgeois vineyard, and a small artisan or *paysan* vineyard; special methods in the *graves*, in the *pays de Sauternes*, in the *côtes*, in the *palus*; methods of vintage and wine-making in Médoc, the press-house, separating the grapes from the bunch by the *trémie* and by a *grillage;* wine-presses, vats, and filling them; *décavage*, second wine; press-wine, *piquette*, the methods in the *graves*, in the *pays de Sauternes*, in the *côtes*, in the *palus*; cultivation of yeast, pasteurization, electrification, weighing musts; the treatment of the wine after it is made, the *chai*, or cellar, the cask and its bung, racking, the *coup de fouet*, with a calendar showing what the cellarer is to do each month of the year; treatment of the wine preparatory to bottling, the art of bottling, the art of drinking wine (but this important part of the treatment of wine is the only one which is decidedly evaded by M. Feret); a description of the character of each vintage from 1795 to 1897 inclusive; and statistics. The main body of the work takes up each district, or *arrondissement*, and gives a general description of it, its methods, its soil, its wines—under each district, each commune, describing it, its soil, and its wines in general terms; and under each commune is given a full list of the vineyards, with the proprietor of each, its average yield, the exact grades and character of its wines, often with a great deal of historical and other interesting information.

What has attracted our attention to the book more than anything else is the astonishing precision and accuracy with which, in very few words or even none, but merely by the order of arrangement, upwards of four thousand kinds of wine are characterized, so that the reader who has at all studied the subject will know each one almost as well as if he had tasted it. We close by remarking that the total annual yield of the five classed *crus* of Médoc is from one to two thousand tons of about 240 United States gallons each, enough to give several thousand persons a bottle every day—say, all the royalties, dukes, and marquises, and a privileged selection of counts, together with all persons who are suffering from alarm lest they should be disgraced by dying rich. The total annual export of wine from Bordeaux is, pretty steadily, thirty million United States gallons.

The Biblical Theology of the New Testament. By Ezra P. Gould, D.D., Author of 'A Critical and Exegetical Commentary on the Gospel of Mark.' The Macmillan Co. 1900.

Dr. Gould's contribution to Professor Mathews's "New Testament Handbooks" is quite abreast of the foremost of a series that has so far maintained a high standard of ability. His first paragraph quietly assumes a position which was damnably heretical a short time since, namely, that Biblical theology is not the theology of the Bible as a whole, but of its separate books, which are so many heterogeneous units. A criticism of the New Testament books is fundamental to their classification under six heads, which are: The Teaching of Jesus, The Teaching of the Twelve, The Teaching of Paul, The Later Apostolic Writings, The Non-Johannean Writings of the Alexandrian Period, The Johannean Writings. The results of this criticism are far removed from those popular conceptions which the pulpit has done much to foster, and from which it is slow to work itself clear. At the same time, they are well within the limits of a prudent scholarship. There is a disposition to save as much as can be saved of the traditional opinion. Thus, the first Epistle of Peter is accepted as authentic, but not as the product of "St. Peter's skull when he was a young man"; rather as the work of a man Paulinized by ripe experience. Similarly, the Epistle of James, which in Harnack's view is a gnomic anthology of the second century, is here regarded as a clear reflection of the actual teachings of Jesus. There is freer handling of Paul's Epistles, eight of the traditional fourteen being more or less sharply cut off, with a leaning to the side of mercy in the case of the two Thessalonian Epistles. The discussion of the Pastoral Epistles is excellent; the best of it—apparently an afterthought—being included in an elaborate note. No attempt is made to assign the Fourth Gospel to a particular date, but the differences between it and the Synoptics are indicated in a manner that makes it necessary to choose between them: they cannot both be valid representations of the teachings and the personality of Jesus. But the Apocalypse is detached from the Apostle John more definitely than the Fourth Gospel, and with refreshing plainness of speech. In the footnotes, which are always abundant and show how far Dr. Gould's studies have been carried, we are referred to those important writings of Vischer and Völter which characterize the Apocalypse as a Jewish writing made over into a Christian one; but Dr. Gould does not consider this solution, which has been approved by Harnack, and which Dr. Martineau hailed with enthusiasm, as a satisfactory answer to a riddle of extreme obscurity.

New Testament exegesis is apt to lag behind the criticism of the New Testament writings. It is apt to show the bias of the writer's personal opinions, of his denominational connection. Dr. Gould's exegesis is free from these habitual faults to a remarkable degree. Nevertheless, its prevailing note is that of a refined and exquisite rationalism, which seeks and finds at every turn the more rational and agreeable interpretation. The most impressive feature is the absence of a theology in the New Testament bearing any general or much particular resemblance to the traditional theology of Christendom. One of the briefest chapters suffices to give "Jesus' Estimate of Himself," and it contains little or no hint of that exalted nature ascribed to him by the traditional theology. Even where Dr. Gould is dealing with the strongest expressions of Paul's Epistles and the Fourth Gospel, he does not force the note, but keeps well within the concessions that the most unorthodox scholarship would be obliged to make if simply cleaving to the text. The preëxistent Christ of Paul's theology he identifies with the Holy Spirit—a heresy which not many centuries ago would have sent this genial scholar to the stake. He is nothing if not genial. Those who will think his New Testament theology too faint an adumbration of their vigorous and rigorous creeds and catechisms, must nevertheless admire a temper which removes their idols from their niches with such reverent hands.

A significant aspect of this study is its treatment of miracles, which is condensed into a single paragraph. They are represented as not being evidential, but as answering simply to the needs of sick and suffering people. This heresy is not a new one in Philadelphia, where Dr. Furness preached it many years. Yet miracles "make," as Dr. Gould observes, "the bulk of the Gospel story." Prophecies, or rather their supposed fulfilments, are also numerous, and once would have had an important place in any careful statement of New Testament theology. That Dr. Gould hardly pays them the tribute of a passing mention is another sign of the times.

Le Voyage de l'Empereur Joseph II. dans les Pays-bas (31 Mai—27 Juillet, 1781). Par Eugène Hubert. Brussels: J. Lebègue & Cie. 1900.

The long debate over the character of the Emperor Joseph II. has received notable enlightenment through the labors of Professor Hubert. For a hundred and sixty years after the death of the Archduke Albert, the Netherland provinces which remained to the Spanish crown, and which passed to the Austrian Hapsburgs by the treaty of Rastadt in 1714, had never seen their sovereigns. Joseph II., in his conscientious desire to acquaint himself with the conditions and needs of his extensive dominions, was an indefatigable traveller, and in 1781 he found himself enabled to pay a long-intended visit to the Low Countries. An enemy of useless display, he journeyed by post, under the name of the Count of Falkenstein, with a retinue of only six persons; he lodged in the public hotels of the towns, and, to save time and the purses of his subjects, he forbade all ceremonious receptions. Including a short excursion into Holland, his visit was comprised within the months of June and July.

It has rather been the fashion to characterize this journey as an exhibition of useless and somewhat fantastic eccentricity, but M. Hubert's researches present it in a different light. He has laboriously investigated the archives, not only of all the Belgian provinces, but also of Vienna, Paris, the Vatican, and The Hague, as well as the voluminous printed material to which the imperial visit gave birth, and, with these ample sources in hand, he is able to give us in minute detail the incidents of the journey and the occupations of the monarch. We thus see Joseph devoting himself unweariedly to acquiring a knowledge of the condition of the land, patiently listening to and carefully weighing all complaints, and striving to devise methods to remove abuses, to further the well-being of the people, to stimulate industry and commerce, to equalize taxation, to regulate the finances, to remove religious disabilities, and in every way to promote the general prosperity. Every moment snatched from brief slumbers is devoted to the hardest kind of work, and we recognize in the Emperor a man to whom his *métier de roi* means a total self-abandonment to the duties and responsibilities of his position. All this stands out clearly in M. Hubert's pages, abundantly illustrated by the wealth of collateral information which he has brought together from all accessible sources.

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Yet with this single-hearted concentration of purpose directed to the welfare of his subjects, Joseph was not a popular prince, and he has left an uncertain reputation. Largely this is due to his attitude towards the Church, which was rather that of a sovereign than of a dutiful son. Reformers, moreover, are rarely popular. Comfortable conservatism has an instinctive dislike to restless innovation, and Joseph's plans for the benefit of his people antagonized too many prejudices, and threatened too many interests based on profitable abuses, not to arouse enmities which took their revenge on the officious intermeddler. The oppugnant forces of progress and conservatism are admirably represented in a document printed by M. Hubert among his 'Pièces justificatives' (pp. 381-416), in which Joseph sets forth thirty-four matters requiring attention, and the Prince de Starhemberg replies to them. Especially significant is the sixteenth article concerning a request of the British Consul at Ostend (a port of which Joseph was anxious to develop the commerce) to be allowed to hold divine service in his house. To this Starhemberg answers that no public Protestant service could possibly be allowed, and that it would be dangerous to permit it privately in the Consul's house for fear of abuse, as consuls are always endeavoring to attribute to themselves a public character. Joseph had the misfortune to be in advance of his age. He was calumniated accordingly, and M. Hubert has rendered a service to historical truth in this remarkable presentation of two months of his laborious life.

Evolution by Atrophy in Biology and Sociology. By Jean Demoor, Jean Massart, and Émile Vandervelde. Translated by Mrs. Chalmers Mitchell. D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. 322, illustrated.

This is a composite study of comparative evolution in biology and sociology, said to have been prepared in connection with a scheme for research work by coördinating the works of specialists in various lines, with the aim of correcting the faults of similar bio-sociological attempts of sociologists who were not naturalists, and of zoologists who were not versed in sociology. The works of these different specialists appear better if taken separately. As a whole, the effort does not justify its pretensions. Atrophy is put in a wrong light by the title; it is usually not a principal but a secondary matter, resulting from dis use, a consequence of diverted function and nourishment. Evolution by atrophy does not exist alone, but follows upon the development and progress of another part. In the main, attention is centred upon degeneration rather than atrophy. Part i. treats of the universality of degenerative evolution, part ii. of the path of degenerative evolution, and part iii. of the causes of degenerative evolution. Generally, as new organs or institutions are evolved, older ones less adapted for the purposes degenerate from lack of use. The path of degeneration is not a return through the stages traversed in the original development, it is not a reverse of the evolution, though reaching similar levels; and, once it has dropped them, the degenerate organ or institution never regains its former functions and conditions. In the first two sections much is said of degeneration and little of atrophy; in the last section, treating of the causes, a loosening of grasp is apparent. The summaries and conclusions of the third section have less value than those of the first and the second. A thing that especially impresses one here is the failure to trace degeneration of organs and of their accomplishments (institutions) to common causes. The rise of organ or institution is well traced, and the usual attendance on its evolution by obsolescence of some other organ or institution of similar purpose is well shown, but a difference is made between the causes of the organ and of its acts.

The conclusions are reached that degeneration is the obverse of progressive evolution, and the necessary complement of every transformation, whether anatomical or social, and that, on the broad average, institutions atrophy either from want of use or from lack of resources, and also that the chief factors in causing atrophy in organs or institutions are variability and selection. At the end of the book the following assertions are made: "Degenerative evolution is brought about by a limitation in means of subsistence—either in nutriment, capital, or labor. In biology the principal if not the sole agents in its accomplishment are the struggle for existence between the various organs, and the struggle for existence between the various organisms. In sociology it is artificial selection which is the dominating agent, and natural selection plays only a secondary part. The occasional causes of degenerative evolution are inutility of function, insufficiency of nutriment or resource, and (in biology only) lack of space." The concluding statement is this: "An institution or an organ which has ceased to be functional, and has also ceased to be useful either directly or indirectly, continues to exist if neither variability nor selection intervene." This is another way of saying it continues to exist if it does not atrophy. But the fact is, degeneration is inevitable if use ceases, and continued undegenerating existence is itself proof of continuance of use. Thirty or forty years ago this volume would have met with a better reception.

Jahrbuch der Deutschen Shakespeare-Gesellschaft in Auftrage des Vorstandes herausgegeben von Alois Brandl und Wolfgang Keller. Sechsunddreissigster Jahrgang. Berlin: Langenscheidt'she Verlagsbuchhandlung. 1900.

Quite the most interesting part of the just published thirty-sixth volume of the German Shakspere Society's Journal is its prefixed annual report. This contains the announcement of action taken by the Society on the 22d of April through which a prize of 800 marks is offered for the best essay on the subject of "Shakespeare's Belesenheit" (roughly the German for Farmer's classic title, "An Essay on the Learning of Shakspeare"). Attached to the prize is the canny proviso that the papers offered must be written *in deutscher Sprache.* The contest closes on the 1st of April, 1901. Dr. Joseph Schick, Professor of English in the University of Munich, Professor Wülker, Professor of English in the University of Leipzig, and Mr. Albert Cohn, the compiler of the bibliographies published every few years in the Society's Journal, are to be the judges. The subject is wisely chosen, and the contest, if confined strictly to the natural limits suggested by it, ought to throw fresh light upon the interesting question of Shakspere's book-learning; and with such judges, especially the one first named, the successful essay cannot fail to prove a substantial contribution to English scholarship in general.

Another interesting part of the report is Professor Wülker's letter of greeting to Dr. Furnivall on the occasion of his seventy-fifth birthday and his concomitant election to be an honorary member of the Society. It is a graceful recognition of valuable service and zealous devotion to a cause which has had all too few supporters in England. Perhaps Professor Wülker's statement that "the German Shakspere Society has always recognized the contributions of English scholarship in a spirit not only void of envy, but full of gratitude," should not be taken so seriously as to lead to the inquiry why the President of the New Shakspere Society had to wait until his seventy-fifth birthday to be made an honorary member of a sister society which includes such names as that of "Samuel Timmins of Birmingham" upon its roster of "Ehrenmitglieder." Dr. Furnivall's response to this touching tribute is full of simple dignity, and deserves to have been set in type with a little more care and intelligence than has been expended upon it. Its five sentences contain four misprints: the clause, "*for the honour, you and they have done,*" should have no comma after *honour; following*, split in the middle of its diphthong, "follo-wing," looks odd; *successive* is so spelled in English, not *succesive; America* is an obvious misprint for *America.* Dr. Furnivall is more careful than most men about his spelling and pointing, and where he differs from the *orthographia recepta* his peculiarities are not due to ignorance. It must go rather hard with him to have his letter thus mangled in the reproduction.

An interesting reprint of a drama of 1559 and 1560, a field in which Professor Brandl has been working for some time, is one of the papers that follow. In reproducing the text, a compromise is made between modern and ancient punctuation—a vicious practice of Professor Brandl's, which destroys one of the valuable features of a reprint without any compensation. For such a mongrel system of pointing English is meaningless; either the old system should be reproduced *punctuatim* to assure the faithfulness of the reprint, or the modern system should be frankly adopted to insure the reader's intelligent comprehension of the text. Many German scholars have the habit of treating New English punctuation in a somewhat cavalier fashion, either pointing New English according to the German system, which is quite different from ours, or making a haphazard compromise between the two.

The year-book also contains Mr. Cohn's bibliography carried up to the end of 1899. The compilation, however, is, unfortunately, not so trustworthy as it should be. Mr. Cohn, for instance, seems to be unaware that the *Nation* prints many scholarly and careful reviews of books in the field of English literature and many important contributions to our knowledge of English grammar. He also makes the mistake of not examining carefully some of the most important of his Shaksperiana entries. If he had done so he would not have failed to notice the fact that the discussion of the meaning of *Beget* and *Begetter* in Elizabethan English, which is vital to the understanding of the Dedication

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of the Sonnets, began in the *Nation* (No. 1797), and not in the *Athenæum*, since Mr. Lee, at the end of his paper in the *Athenæum*, properly acknowledges his indebtedness to the *Nation* for much of his new material. The paper in the *Nation* contained, also, a new explanation of the word as used in "Hamlet," with substantiating references which Mr. Cohn has entirely overlooked. It is a pity, too that Mr. Cohn's bibliographical work has not been arranged according to a better system. The rubrics "Shakespeare editions" and "Shaksperiana," with the sub-rubrics "in English," "in German," "in other languages," offer a classification which interrupts an alphabetical arrangement several times with no corresponding gain. Nevertheless, Mr. Cohn's work, which he brings to a close with this instalment, covering, as it does, a period of thirty-six years, deserves the grateful acknowledgment of all Shakspere scholars. It is to be hoped that Mr. Schröder, who is to carry on the work in subsequent numbers of the journal, will do as much for Shakspere bibliography as Mr. Cohn has done.

A Book of Whales. By F. E. Beddard, M.A., F.R.S. London: John Murray; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900. 8vo, pp. 320, illustrated.

Individual whales, possibly not the very largest, have been taken of a length of 95 feet and a weight of 147 tons. With members attaining such dimensions, this group of the mammals contains at once the largest creatures existing and the largest known to have existed at any time. Including the porpoises and the dolphins, the smallest of the species is several feet in length—so large as not to be readily overlooked. At first thought, it would seem as if these animals should be well known through the multitude of observations that must have been made upon them, but such is not the case. Few of the eighty or more species, of some thirty-five genera, on the lists have been at all well studied. Many of them range through all the oceans, some are local, some are fresh-water, some are rarely seen, some have been observed but once, and none are easily secured and preserved. Some types are known from fragments of skeletons, and the different forms that have come into possession of those able to preserve them are dispersed over the entire world. The records, also, by many writers in many languages, are scattered everywhere so widely that it is no light task to bring together the knowledge of this section of the mammalia in a book that is not too technical and not too popular, that is not a monograph, but yet contains the most important information on the subject, that is a solid book tempered with anecdote, and that, while giving the main facts of structure, properly sets forth the affinities and the influence of habits and environment.

This work is a good general account; it contains excellent studies of the viscera, skeleton, teeth, dermal structure; and comparisons with the living or the extinct or with the sea-cows, seals, or others. The classification and notes on whaling are included. The derivation of the cetacea is traced no further than to possible ancestors that lost a hairy covering as they gained a dermal armature, like that of the armadillo or other edentates, and then lost the bony plates as they acquired the cetacean skin.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Prof. E. A History of Greece. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Putnams. Part III. 445-403 B. C. $2.25.
Abruzzi, Duke of the. The Ascent of Mount St. Elias [Alaska]. F. A. Stokes Co. $12.50.
Adams, B. America's Economic Supremacy. Macmillan. $1.25.
Baden-Powell, Major-General R. S. S. Sport in War. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Beard, D. C. New Ideas for American Boys: The Jack of All Trades. Scribners. $2.
Beard, D. C. The Playground, Field and Forest: The Outdoor Handy Book. Scribners. $2.
Beman and Seiler, Drs. The Human Frame and the Laws of Health. [The Temple Primers.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 40c.
Bird, R. Paul of Tarsus. Scribners. $2.
Borrow, G. The Bible in Spain; or, The Journeys, Adventures, and Imprisonments of an Englishman in an Attempt to Circulate the Scriptures in the Peninsula. London: John Murray; New York: Putnams.
Buell, A. C. Paul Jones, Founder of the American Navy. Scribners. 2 vols.
Burnham, S. M. Bible Characters. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.25.
Bury, J. B. Gibbon's History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Vol. VII. $2.
Butterworth, H. Jack's Carrier Pigeons: A Tale of the Times of Father Taylor's Mariners' Home. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.25.
Carus, Dr. P. Whence and Whither. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. 25c.
Cary, M. B. The Connecticut Constitution. New Haven: The Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor Co.
Caxton, W. The Golden Legend; or, Lives of the Saints. [Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Vols. III. and IV. 50c.
Chabot, A. The Dancing Master. Translated by Pauline W. Sill. Lippincotts.
Clews, H. The Wall Street Point of View. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.50.
Cooper, J. F. Ned Myers; or, A Life Before the Mast. [Mohawk ed.] Putnams. $1.25.
Corelli, Marie. The Master Christian: A Novel. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Cornish, F. W. Sunningwell: A Novel. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Dix, Gertrude. The Image Breakers. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Elliott, Sarah B. Sam Houston. [The Beacon Biographies.] Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75c.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. The Life of Christ as Represented in Art. Macmillan. $3.50.
Fulton, R. I., and Trueblood, Prof. T. C. Patriotic Eloquence relating to the Spanish-American War and its Issues. Scribners. $1.
Ferguson, C. The Religion of Democracy: A Manual of Devotion. San Francisco: D. P. Elder & Morgan Shepard.
Godwin, P. A New Study of the Sonnets of Shakespeare. Putnams.
Gore, W. C. Carlyle's Essay on Burns, with the Cotter's Saturday Night and Other Poems from Burns. Macmillan. 25c.
Hall, Ruth. The Black Gown. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Hamilton, M. The Dishonor of Frank Scott. Harper & Bros. $1.50.
Harland, Marion. Hannah Moore. John Knox. Putnams. 2 vols. $1.50 each.
Harrison, F. The Meaning of History, and Other Historical Pieces. Macmillan. $1.75.
Hazlitt, W. Lectures on the English Comic Writers. [Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Henty, G. A. With Buller in Natal; or, A Born Leader. Scribners. $1.50.
Henty, G. A. Out with Garibaldi: A Story of the Liberation of Italy. Scribners. $1.50.
Henty, G. A. In the Irish Brigade: A Tale of War in Flanders and Spain. Scribners. $1.50.
Holland, Prof. T. E. The Elements of Jurisprudence. Ninth ed. Henry Frowde.
Hope, A. Quisanté: A Novel. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Horton-Smith, L. The Establishment and Extension of the Law of Thurneysen and Havet. Cambridge: Macmillan & Bowes.
Hovey, C. Stonewall Jackson. [The Beacon Biographies.] Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75c.
How, Bishop W. Lighter Moments. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Johnson, E. G. The Private Memoirs of Madame Roland. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Kirkman, M. M. The Romance of Gilbert Holmes: An Historical Novel. New York: The World Railway Publishing Co.
La Flesche, F. The Middle Five Indian Boys at School. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.25.
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